

Advanced Geography

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Part I, II

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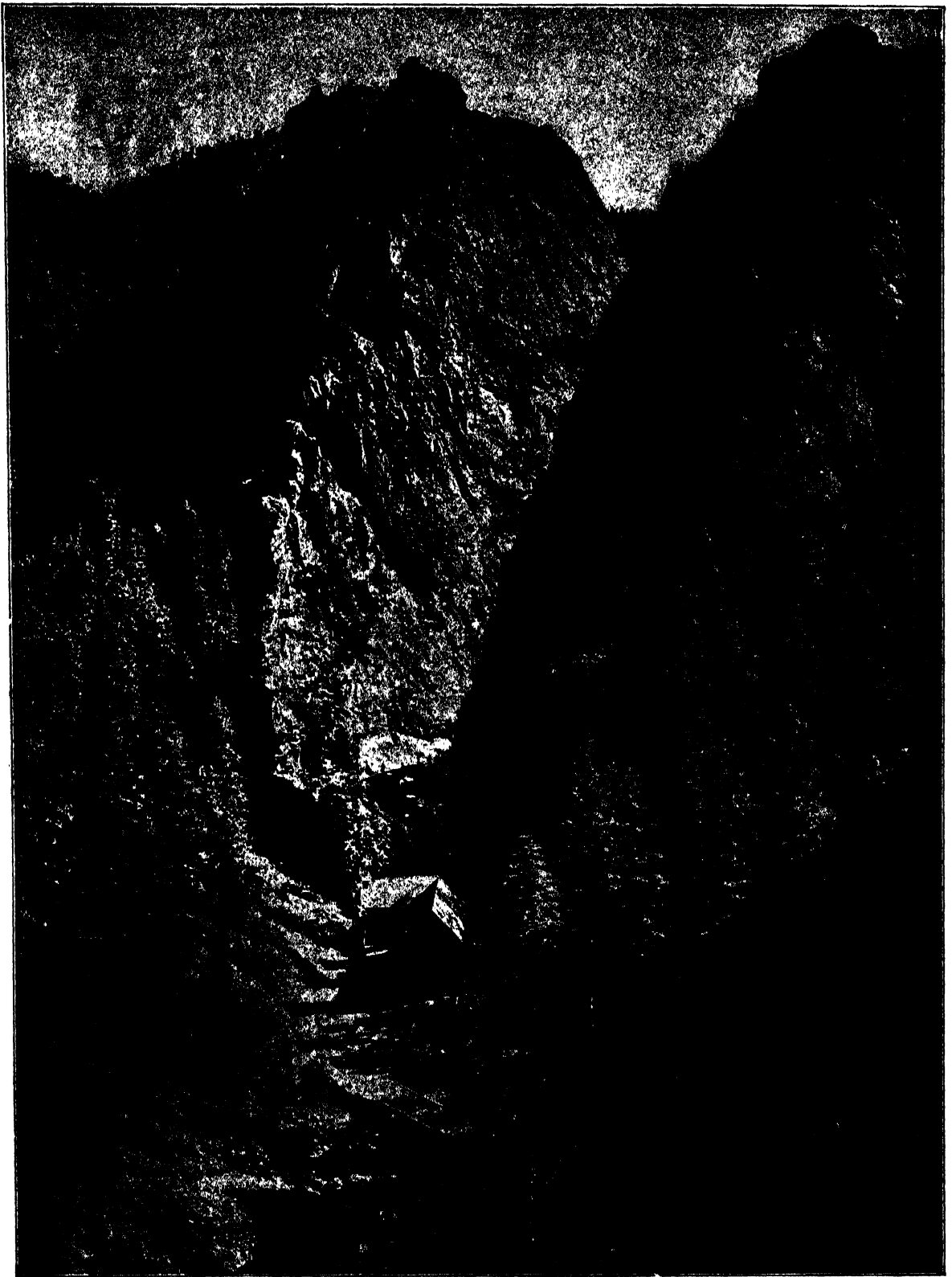
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A young valley in the Rocky Mountains. South Cheyenne Canyon, near Colorado Springs, Colorado.

DODGE'S ADVANCED GEOGRAPHY

PART I

THE PRINCIPLES OF GEOGRAPHY

I. INTRODUCTORY

The Meaning of Geography. The study of geography is the study of the earth and its relation to the plants, animals, and men that live on its surface. When we are learning about the climate and the people of the tropical forests of Central Africa or the Philippines, or about the explorations of Nansen or Peary in the far north, we are studying geography.

When we look for spring flowers on the sunny, sheltered side of a hill rather than on the north side, or when we walk on the sunny side of the streets in winter and on the shady side in summer, we are making use of our knowledge of geography.

Geographical Facts and Principles. Our study of geography shows us that certain facts are much more important to learn and to remember than others, because some are permanent while others are constantly changing. For instance, the population of New York City or Chicago, or any other large place, changes daily; hence there is little to be gained from remembering the exact number of inhabitants in any city at a certain date. On the other hand, the location, climate, soil, slopes, and drainage which have led men to build large cities at the places mentioned, are practically unchanging and therefore important. Before the white man came the Indians occupied the island on which New York City stands, and for exactly

the same reason, because it was a convenient place to gain their living. Such truths as this are more than mere facts. They are *principles*, for they are true without regard to time or place.

A knowledge of geographical principles, therefore, will enable us to understand why men live and act in certain ways in one part of the world, and in different ways in another.

The Value of Geographical Principles. In the first part of this book we are to study the more important principles of geography, for they will help us to understand the geographical conditions of the world. Principles, or generalizations, are worked out through the study and comparison of many facts. We can understand the principles only when we know many facts from different parts of the world which serve to illustrate the principles.

For instance, we shall find the soil, the drainage, and the climate of the coastal areas of South Carolina, Louisiana, and Texas to be much alike. We shall also find that these three states raise great quantities of rice. We may then very rightfully say that wherever the conditions in other parts of the world are like those in these regions, rice can easily be raised. With this principle in mind it is not difficult to find out the possible rice-producing areas from a study of the maps and the text. In other words, a knowledge of the geographical conditions in one part of the world will help us to understand the conditions in another.

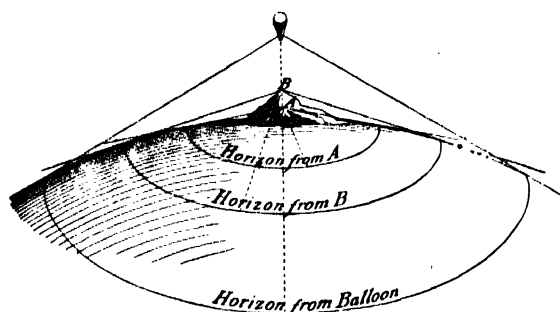


FIG. 1. A diagram showing the different horizons which may be seen from different elevations.

II. THE SHAPE AND SIZE OF THE EARTH

The Materials of Which the Earth is Composed. The earth is a large globular mass of matter, the outer portion of which is made of rock. In the larger depressions of the rock surface there are great volumes of water, and over all is the air. The rocks, the water, and the air are held in their relative positions because they are constantly drawn toward the center of the earth by the force which we call gravity. The heavy rocks form the central mass, while the water, which is heavier than air but lighter than rock, is drawn as near to the center of the earth as the rock will allow it to go. It is the attraction of gravity that keeps movable objects from falling off into space.

○ **The Shape of the Earth.** The globular earth is so large that we can see very little of its surface at any one moment, and that little appears flat. If we climb a tree or go up on a housetop, we can see more of the earth's surface than we can from the ground. From a high mountain we can see still more. (See Fig. 1.) Mountain tops are therefore frequently visited for the view they command, and high lookout towers are some-

times built on plains for the same purpose. In all places, however, we see a line in the distance where the earth and sky seem to meet. That line is known as the *horizon*.

A ship on the sea as it moves away from us will disappear over the horizon; that is, it passes over so large a part of the earth's surface that it gets out of sight on account of the earth's curvature. (See Figs. 2, 3, and 4.) The last sign of a steamship leaving port is the smoke, which has risen so high in the air that it is still visible when the vessel itself has disappeared. (See Fig. 5.)

The curvature of the earth is everywhere such that an object five feet in height is out of sight at a distance of four miles. If this were true in one direction only, we could merely say that the earth is cylindrical like a round tin can. But it is equally true in *all* directions. Therefore the shape is spherical, and the earth is a globe or sphere. The shape of the earth is also proved by the fact that the shadow of the earth cast upon the moon is always circular. (See Fig. 6.) As a sphere is the only body that always casts a circular shadow, the earth must be spherical.



FIG. 2. A steamer leaving New York Harbor.

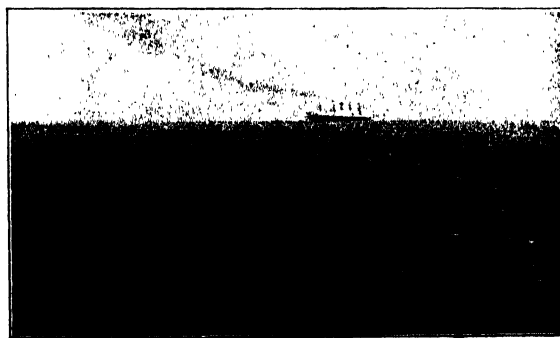


FIG. 3. A telephoto picture of the same steamer six miles distant. Notice that the vessel is disappearing behind the curvature of the earth.

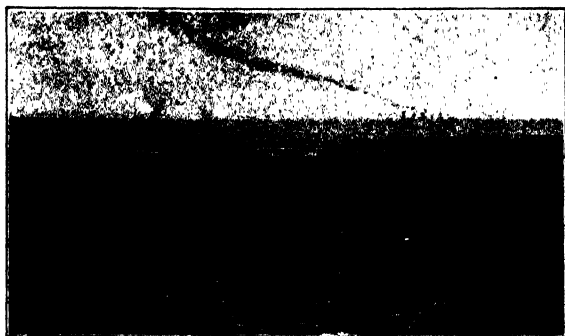


FIG. 4. A telephoto picture of the same steamer about twelve miles distant.

6 The Importance of the Shape of the Earth.

The earth is not exactly a sphere, but is so nearly one that only careful study can detect the difference. It is of little importance to us that the earth is not quite spherical, but the fact that it is practically so is of great importance, for, owing to its shape, the attraction of gravity is nearly the same in all parts of the world. Because of the nearly equal attraction of gravity a man can walk over the level surface with the same ease everywhere. The birds can migrate from one part of the world to another without difficulty because their muscles are able to move their weight anywhere. Steam vessels and railroad trains end their journeys with the same weight of freight as when they started.

Owing to the attraction of gravity, water or any other liquid is drawn toward the center of the earth until it is *level*. When we refer to a surface of large area, as the surface of a large lake or the sea, as being level, we do not mean that it is flat like a floor. We mean that it has no curvature other than the general curvature of the earth's surface.

By *up*, we mean away from the center of

the earth. So people on the opposite side of the earth stand with their feet down and their heads up just as we do.

The Size of the Earth. The earth is so large that people living in different parts of the same country often know very little about each other. In modern times the use of locomotives and steam vessels has made it possible to reach nearly all parts of the world with comparative ease. For this reason the earth does not seem so large as it once did.

The *exact* size of the earth is of no great importance to us. To know that it is about 25,000 miles in circumference gives us some

idea of the length of time required to go around it in a fast steamer, traveling 500 miles a day, if we could follow a straight path. But, as we have learned, the earth is not quite a sphere, and the longest distance around it in a north and south direction is forty-two miles less than the longest distance around it in an east and west direction. This difference is too small to be shown by a globe or by any drawing we can make. A perfect globe illustrates the shape of the

earth accurately enough. (See Figs. 7 and 8.)

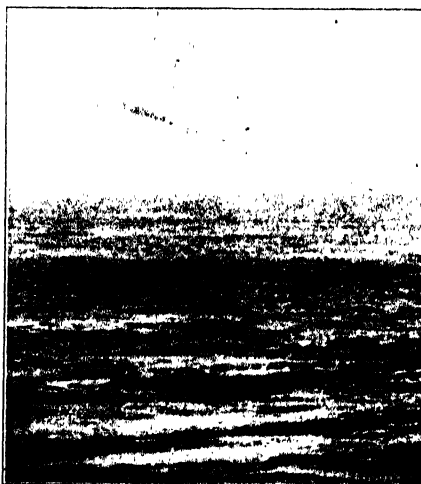


FIG. 5. A telephoto picture where the same steamer is about twenty miles distant. Only the smoke is visible.

Questions and Exercises

(1) When a sailor is approaching land does he see the base or the summit of a hill or tower

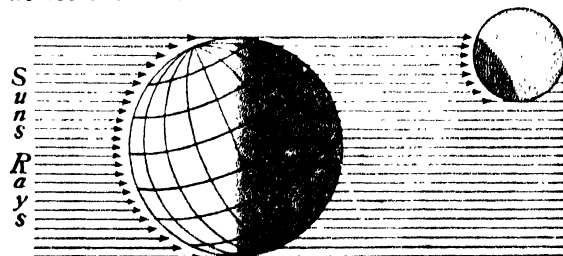


FIG. 6. A diagram showing how the earth casts a circular shadow on the moon.



FIG. 7. The Western Hemisphere which contains North and South America.



FIG. 8. The Eastern Hemisphere which contains Eurasia, Africa, and Australia.

first? Give the reason. (2) Draw a picture of a ship coming into a harbor, and show how the curved surface of the earth is illustrated by what a person on the shore sees. If you live on a level prairie, make another drawing to illustrate the same principle. (3) Draw a picture showing some experience of your own illustrating the curved surface of the earth. (4) How much of the earth's surface have you seen at one time? Where were you and what did you see? (5) At sea does the surface of the ocean look flat or curved? Why? (6) Which diameter of the earth is longer, the equatorial or the polar? (7) Does the fact that men have sailed around the earth show that it is spherical and not egg-shaped? (8) Write in brief sentences what you have learned about the size and the shape of the earth.

III. THE MOTIONS OF THE EARTH

Kinds of Movements. The great globe on which we live is constantly in motion. It turns on its axis or *rotates* once in twenty-four hours, and it moves through the heavens or *revolves* around the sun in a fixed path once a year.

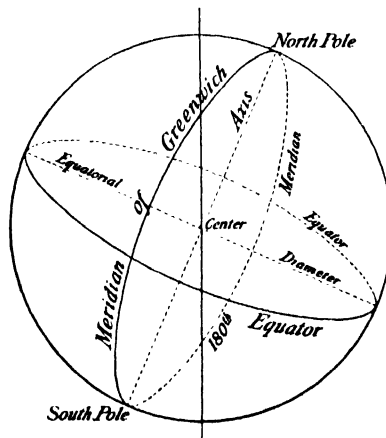


FIG. 9. A diagram of the earth showing the axis, the equator, the prime meridian, and the poles.

Rotation; the Earth's Axis; the Poles. The earth rotates daily on an *axis* or central line. (See Fig. 9.) The two extremities of this line on the earth's surface are known as the *Poles*. The pole nearest the North, or Pole-star, is known as the *North Pole*. (See Fig. 10.) The opposite pole is the *South Pole*. If we watch the stars in the northern sky on any night we see that certain stars, forming what is known as the Big Dipper, seem to swing around the Pole-star. The two stars farthest from the handle are called the *pointers*, because a line connecting them always points toward the Pole-star. (See Figs. 10 and 11.)

If one could stand at either pole, he would simply be turned around once in twenty-four hours; his body would not move forward at all. This is well illustrated by an engine on a turntable. The cow-catcher and the rear of the tender have to be swung through a long distance in order to turn the

engine halfway round, while the middle of the engine is always over the same spot. In the same way points on the earth at a distance from the poles have to pass through a greater space in a day than points near them, and hence rotate more rapidly.

♣ The Equator; the Hemispheres.

Halfway between the poles there is a line of places which have a faster rotary motion than any other part of the world. These points, equally distant from the poles and having the most rapid rotary motion, form the *equator*. The half of the world north of the equator is called the *Northern Hemisphere* and the other half is known as the *Southern Hemisphere*. (See Fig. 12.)

♣ Directions on the Earth.

As a result of the earth's rotation we have certain easily determined directions on the earth. A line pointing toward the poles is a north-south line, and a line at right angles to this is known as an east-west line.

The points toward which these lines are directed, namely, north, east, south, and west, are called the *cardinal points*, and can be determined at night by finding the Pole-

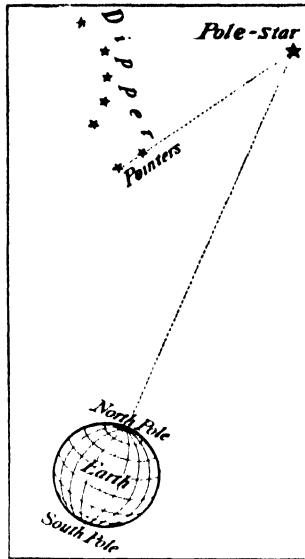


FIG. 10. The axis of the earth and the pointers are each in line with the Pole-star.

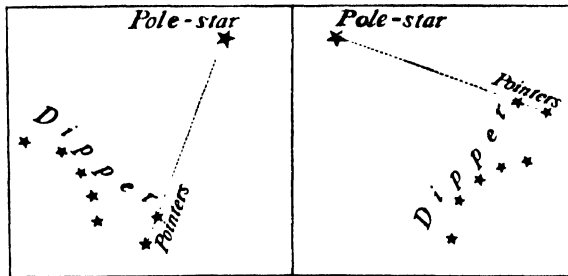


FIG. 11. The apparent change in position of the Big Dipper in six hours. It seems to revolve around the Pole-star every twenty-four hours.

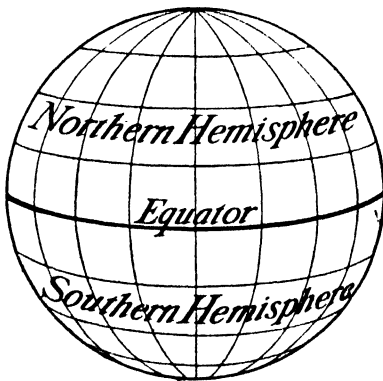


FIG. 12. A diagram of the earth showing the equator and the hemispheres.

star. Even uncivilized people know and use these four points.

The Compass. Any one who has lived in the open fields or in the forests, or who has been a sailor, can usually tell direction by means of the sun or stars. Most people, however, find it more convenient to use a compass. (See Fig. 13.)

The compass is an instrument with a magnetic needle supported so as to swing about a point. A magnetic needle will always come to rest so that one end points toward the *North Magnetic Pole*. If the north pole and the magnetic pole were the same, the compass would tell us the true north. The north magnetic pole, how-

ever, is in northern Canada, and is some distance south of the north pole. (See Fig. 173.) Hence, it is necessary to know how much a compass varies from the true north, if we wish to measure direction accurately by means of it. When the sun shines the car-

dinal points can be found by means of a common watch. Hold the watch in a horizontal position and point the short hand toward the sun. The south point of the dial



FIG. 13. A compass.

will then be halfway between the short hand and the XII. mark.

Daylight and Darkness. The earth, in its daily rotation, turns from west to east, so that the sun *seems* to move from east to west. The rate of rotation of the earth is usually measured by means of the sun. As the earth rotates toward the east, the place where we live turns first into sunlight and then into shadow, giving us day and night. (See Fig. 14.) Just before the sun appears in the eastern part of the sky and just after it disappears in the western part, we have *twilight*.

During twilight the sun is shining through the upper air, and the light of the air is reflected to the earth, making it partly light, or twilight. The constant change from day to night and night to day is therefore due to the earth's rotation.

Meridians.

When the sun is over a north-south line passing through our home, we say it is *noon*. This line, if extended, would pass through the north and south poles, and is known as a *meridian*, or midday line. The earth must make a complete rotation to bring the sun over our meridian again and complete a day.

Every place to the east or west of us is on a different meridian from ours, and has its noon at a different time from ours, because the sun cannot be over more than one meridian at a time. The sun passes a meridian to the east of us before it is over our meridian.

and hence places to the east have their noon earlier than ours, and places to the west have theirs later. It would be inconvenient to distinguish as many meridians as there are north-south lines over the earth's surface, so 360 meridians are generally used, as a circle

is commonly divided into 360 parts or degrees. (See Fig. 15.)

Longitude and Time. One meridian, that passing through Greenwich, England, is known as the *prime meridian* or *zero meridian*, and time all over the world is compared with Greenwich time. (See Fig. 16.) We describe the position of places

to the west of Greenwich as being in *West Longitude*, and to the east of it as being in *East Longitude*. (See Fig. 15.)

As it takes the earth twenty-four hours to make a complete rotation, the sun seems to

pass over fifteen degrees of the complete 360 degrees of the earth's circumference each hour. (See Fig. 15.) Therefore points which are fifteen degrees apart

vary in time by one hour. Time is reckoned the world over by means of the meridians. Shipmasters all carry clocks or chronometers which tell Greenwich time, and when it is noon where they are, which they can tell by observing the sun, they find out by their chronometers what time it is at Greenwich, and thus learn how far east or west of the meridian of Greenwich they are.

For example, suppose it is noon at Greenwich, it is then midnight one-half way around

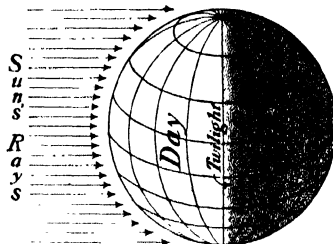


FIG. 14. Day, night, and twilight on the earth's surface.

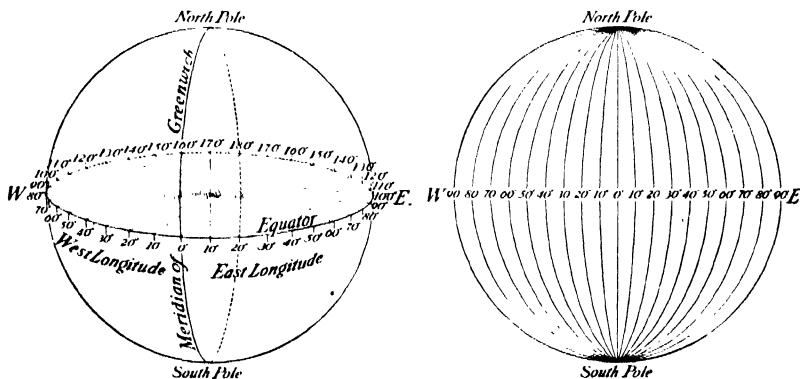


FIG. 15. Degrees of longitude and meridians by means of which places are located as east or west of the meridian of Greenwich.

the world from Greenwich; that is, on the 180th meridian. At the same moment at all points west of Greenwich to the 180th meridian it is some hour between midnight and noon (that is forenoon of the same day), while in the opposite direction it is some hour between noon and midnight (that is afternoon of the same day). When it is noon at Greenwich a new day is beginning at the 180th meridian. As the noon hour moves west from Greenwich, the new day moves west from the 180th meridian until in twenty-four hours midnight again occurs at the 180th meridian and a new day begins.

When it is noon at New Orleans on the 90th meridian, west longitude, it is six o'clock in the evening at Greenwich and six o'clock in the morning of the next day on the 180th meridian. When it is Tuesday noon at New Orleans, it is Tuesday evening at Greenwich and Tuesday midnight at ninety degrees east longitude. The next moment Wednesday begins at ninety degrees east longitude; it continues its journey westward and in six hours will reach Greenwich.

The International Date Line. The above paragraph has shown us that there is a difference in date between Greenwich and the 180th meridian, as, when it is Thursday afternoon at Greenwich it is Friday forenoon at the 180th meridian. The 180th meridian passes through the Pacific Ocean, where there is little land, so that few people except sailors are bothered by this change in date. There are a few groups of islands, like our Aleutian Islands, however, which are on both sides of the 180th meridian. As it would be inconvenient for a part of these islands to use a different date from the rest, it has been agreed that the day shall not

change everywhere at the 180th meridian, but along an irregular line shown on the map (see Fig. 119) and known as the *International Date Line*. This line has been drawn so that no two neighboring regions belonging to the same country shall have different dates at the same time.

If you were on a steamer going from San Francisco to Japan, it would be necessary when the steamer crossed this line for you to change your reckoning exactly one day; for instance, if you reached the line on Monday noon, after crossing the line you would have

to call it Tuesday noon. If you were going in the opposite direction, you would have to call it Sunday noon.

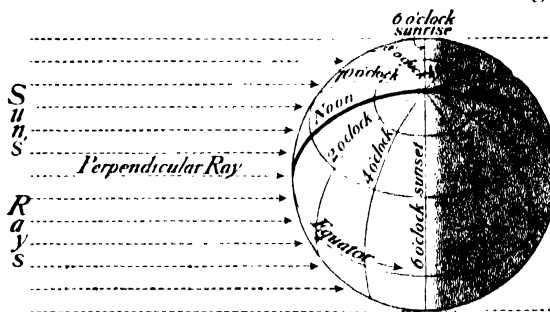


FIG. 16. A diagram showing the time on different meridians when it is noon at Greenwich.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Draw a circle two inches in diameter to represent the earth. Indicate the Northern Hemisphere; the Southern. Draw a line to represent all the places in your hemisphere which have the same speed of rotation as you. What will you call this line? To what is it parallel?

(2) Take a sheet of blank paper such as you use for your school exercises and place on a table which has no iron near it; see that the long sides are parallel with the long sides of the room. Draw a small oblong to represent your teacher's desk. Draw another to represent your position in the room. Without moving the sheet from its position, draw a north and south line through the center of the sheet and cross it with an east and west line. Use colored pencils for your work, and make the sheet attractive. In which directions do the long sides of the room run? Which direction do you face? (3) With the help of a good compass and a ruler, draw your meridian line on the floor of your schoolroom. Find out the magnetic variation at your home, so that the line shall be exactly right.

(4) Locate the magnetic pole. In which direction would the compass needle point if you stood north of the magnetic pole?

(5) Look for the Pole-star to-night. Find the Big Dipper and draw a diagram to show its position with regard to the Pole-star.

(6) Point a cane or pointer through an open window at the Big Dipper or some familiar group of stars near the Pole-star. Do this by holding your eye at one end of the cane, noting just the place among the stars to which it points. Arrange the pointer so that it shall not move, and make another observation an hour after the first. If possible, make three observations an hour apart. Report on what you have noted with regard to the apparent movement of these stars. Give the reason. Do the same with the moon.

(7) Observe the direction and length of your shadow at 9 A. M., 12 M., and at 5 P. M. Draw a picture illustrating your observations. In what direction does your noon shadow point? When is your shadow shortest? How could you easily find north if you were lost without a compass? (8) When it is noon at your home, what time is it on a meridian fifteen degrees to the west? To the east? When it is noon at New Orleans, what time is it at Memphis? When it is noon at Cairo in Africa, what time is it at Natal in Africa? (9) In what direction is the shadow of the Washington Monument, Washington, D.C., pointing at this moment?

The shadow of the obelisk in front of St. Peter's at Rome? The Bunker Hill Monument, Boston?

(10) Over how many degrees of the earth's surface does the sun pass in twenty-four hours? In one hour? (11) Locate Greenwich. (12) On which meridian is Calcutta? New Orleans? Your home? (13) Trace the International Date Line. What time is it on that line when it is noon at Greenwich? (14) Suppose when it is noon on some ship at sea its chronometer shows time at Greenwich to be 3.30 P. M. In what longitude is the ship? (15) Name three cities in east longitude; three in west longitude. (16) What time is it now in the Philippines? In Hawaii? At Greenwich? At Tokyo?

IV. THE MOTIONS OF THE EARTH (Continued)

Revolution. The other great motion of the earth, that about the sun in the course of a year, is known as *revolution*. The earth, rotating or spinning all the time, circles around the sun much as a spinning top sometimes moves about the floor. The earth does not spin like the top with its axis straight up and down, but with it inclined to the plane in which

it moves at the angle shown in accompanying figure. (See Fig. 17.) This angle of inclination from the perpendicular is $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, or a little more than one-fourth of a right angle. As the earth moves about the sun in a nearly circular path, the north pole first leans toward the sun. When the earth has reached the opposite position in its course the north pole leans away from

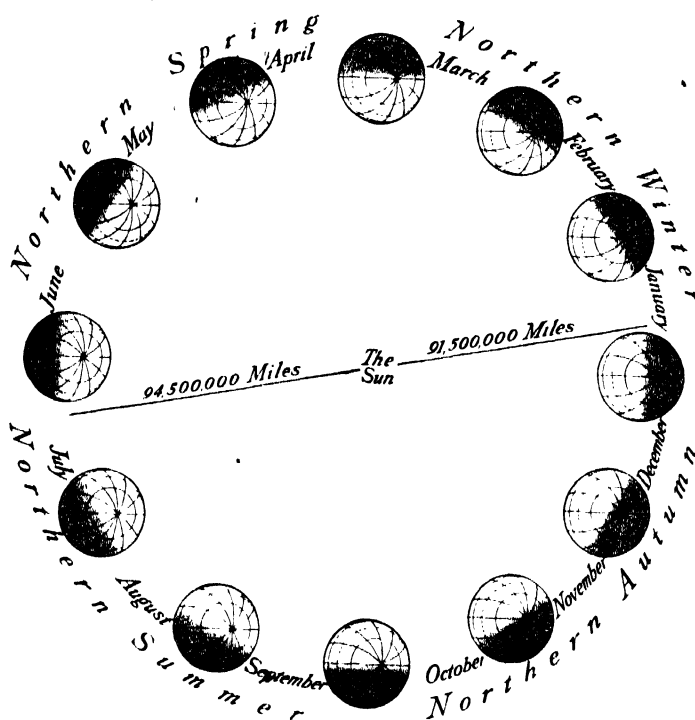


FIG. 17. Position of the earth in its orbit each month. Notice that the axis always points in the same direction.

the sun. That is, each pole is at one time in the sunlight and then, six months later, in the shadow of the earth. In order to make this motion clear, thrust a knitting needle, or long hat pin, through an apple from bloom end to stem end. Then tilt the needle to the proper angle and move it and the apple about some central object representing the sun. It will then readily be seen that though the needle always points in the same direction, as does the earth's axis, it leans toward the central object when in one position

and away from it when in the opposite position, just as the poles of the earth do.

The distribution of sun-light over the earth therefore changes constantly, and as a result we have different seasons. (See Fig. 17.) The best method of illustrating the way the earth

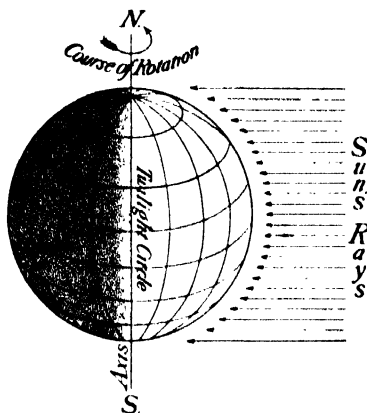


FIG. 18 The sun's rays reaching both poles at the equinoxes.

is lighted by the sun is by means of a globe and a light in a darkened room. In whatever position the globe is held it will always be half in the light and half in the dark. The boundary between the dark and the light side will be a circle dividing the globe into halves. This circle on the earth is called the *twilight circle*, because it marks the boundary between day and night. The twilight circle always cuts the equator in halves; hence daytime and night at the equator are always equal, each twelve hours in length. (See Figs. 18, 19, and 20.)

The Equinoxes. When the sun is directly overhead, or *in the zenith*, at the equator, the twilight circle passes through the poles, the days and nights are equal in length throughout the world, and all the earth is lighted in each twenty-four hours. This occurs on the twenty-first of March and the twenty-second of September, and hence these

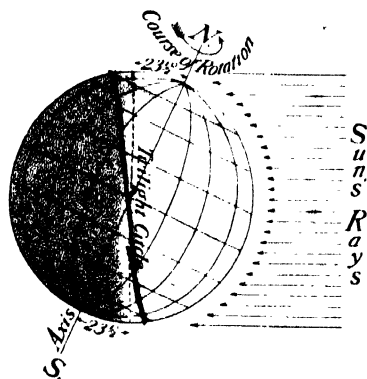


FIG. 19. The sun's rays reaching $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees beyond the north pole at the summer solstice.

two dates are known as the *equinoxes*, or the times of equal days and nights. (See Fig. 18.)

Summer and Winter. As the earth moves along in its course from the twenty-first of March the north pole leans more and more toward the sun, until it reaches its extreme position on June twenty-second. Then the sun shines $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees beyond the north pole. At this time it also fails to reach the south pole by $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. Thus, there is at this season a circular area about the north pole which is continually in sunlight and one about the south pole which is continually in darkness. (See Fig. 19.) Six months later, that is, on the twenty-second of December, the conditions are reversed;

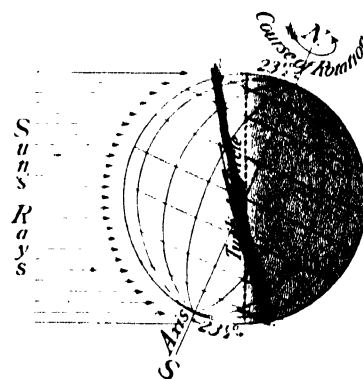


FIG. 20 The sun's rays reaching $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees beyond the south pole at the winter solstice.

the south pole leans toward the sun and the north pole away from it. Then the south polar area is in sunlight continually, the north polar area in darkness, and the sun's rays strike the earth vertically

at noon $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees south of the equator. (See Fig. 20.)

Between the twenty-first of March and the twenty-second of September the larger part of the lighted half of the earth is in the Northern Hemisphere, and the days in that hemisphere are everywhere longer than the nights. In the six months from the twenty-second of September to the twenty-first of March the days in the Southern Hemisphere are similarly longer than the nights. Thus, the Northern Hemisphere has summer while the Southern Hemisphere has winter, and it has winter while the Southern Hemisphere has summer. In the Southern Hemisphere the

sports that are indulged in at the Christmas season are those we enjoy in midsummer.

Circles and Tropics. The boundary lines of the polar areas are therefore circles $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from either pole and marking the extreme limit of the sun's rays on the twenty-second of December in the Northern Hemisphere and on the twenty-second of June in the Southern Hemisphere. These two circles are therefore important lines and are known as the *Arctic* and *Antarctic Circles*. (See Fig. 21.) The northern and southern limits of the vertical sun are known as the *Tropics*, from a word meaning "to turn," because the vertical rays first advance toward these lines and then recede. The tropic in the Northern Hemisphere is known as the *Tropic of Cancer*, and that in the Southern Hemisphere as the *Tropic of Capricorn*. (See Fig. 21.)

Zones of Sunlight. Between the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn lies the Tropical Zone of Sunlight, within which the sun is always vertical somewhere. It is vertical at every place in this zone, except the tropics themselves, twice a year—once as the vertical rays move north and once as they move south.

Between the circles and the tropics are two areas, known as the *Temperate Zones of Sunlight*. In these regions the sun shines every day, but it is never directly overhead. Near the tropics it is almost overhead in summer, while near the circles it is very low in the sky in winter, so that its rays cast long shadows and give little warmth. In our spring months the sun rises higher and higher in the heavens each day and the days grow longer. In the autumn months it sinks lower and lower and the nights grow longer. At the poles there are six months of darkness and six months of daylight. At the

equator, as we have seen, there are always twelve hours of daylight and twelve hours of darkness. Everywhere else the days and nights are unequal in length except on the twenty-first of March and the twenty-second of September, when the days and nights are of equal length the world over.

Latitude. We have already seen how the rotation of the earth enables us to make use of the sun in calculating time and in finding how far east or west of the meridian of Greenwich we are. In this way we get our longitude by the sun. A knowledge of how the earth rotates and revolves also enables us to tell how far north or south of the equator we are. Our position with reference to the equator is known as our *Latitude*. Thus, by knowing our position with reference to the north-south Greenwich meridian and the east-west equator, we can find our exact position on the earth.

The latitude of a place is most easily found by locating the position of the Pole-stars

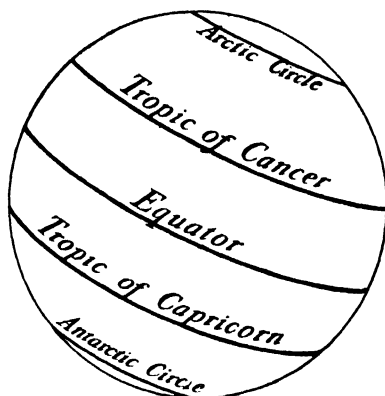


FIG. 21. The earth, showing the principal circles.

in the sky. A person standing at the equator would see the North Star on the northern horizon and the Southern Cross nearly on the southern horizon. If a person could reach the north pole, the North Star would be in the zenith. Everywhere between, there would be a different angle between the plane of the horizon and the line from one's eye to the North Star.

At the equator, where the North Star appears on the horizon, the latitude is zero degrees. The distance between either of the poles and the equator is one-fourth of the circumference of the globe; that is, one-fourth of 360 degrees, or ninety degrees. At the poles, therefore, the latitude is ninety degrees, and at all places between the poles and the equator it is somewhere between zero degrees and ninety degrees.

Everywhere in the Northern Hemisphere the latitude may be found by measuring the angle between the Pole-star and the horizon. We can use latitude to measure distance, because we know how large the world is and can divide the distance from the pole to the equator into ninety parts, each of which is a degree in length. (See Fig. 22.) The average length of a degree of latitude is 69.09 miles.

Parallels of Latitude. All points the same distance from the equator have the same latitude, and may be imagined to be joined together by a line, just as the places which are at the greatest distance from the poles are imagined to be joined by a line known as the equator.

All of these lines would

be parallel to the equator and are, therefore, called *parallels*. (See Fig. 22.) The parallels that are the most used are those which are ten degrees of latitude apart, just as the meridians most used are those ten degrees apart. By knowing our position with reference to the crossing of a meridian and a parallel we know our position on the earth, just as in cities our street and number tells us our position north, south, east, or west of certain streets chosen as starting points.

Latitude and longitude are very important, especially in the great plains of the world or on the ocean, where no one would know his position unless he could calculate it from the stars. Sailors the world over therefore find their latitude and longitude frequently.

Maps and Map Scales. Latitude and longitude are of great importance to all people who use maps, because all maps are drawn to show the position of places in the world by their latitudes and longitudes. Any map is a plan showing the position of objects on a part or the whole of the earth's surface.

Maps drawn to show in a detailed way the features of a small section, like city or town maps, or the plan of a farm, are very much easier to draw and to read than are some of the maps in this book, where the whole world has to be represented on less than

one page. Such detailed maps are said to be drawn on a large scale, while maps like those of the world which are used in this book are drawn on a smaller scale.

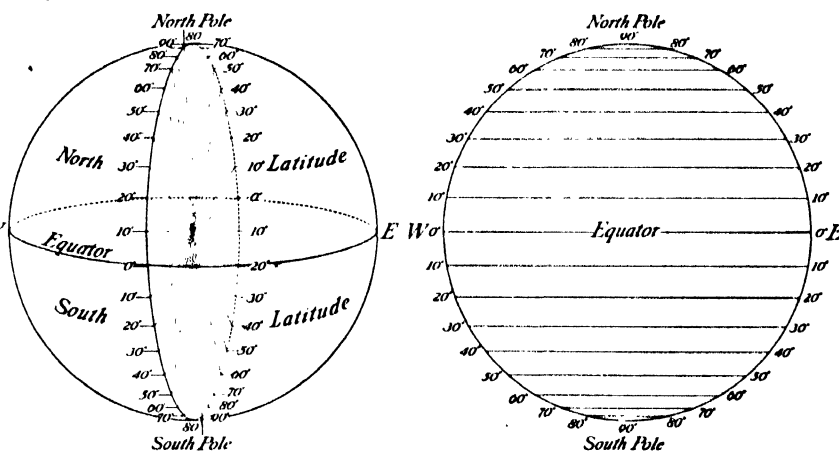


FIG. 22. Degrees and parallels of latitude by means of which we locate places with reference to the equator.

Scale is usually expressed by lines drawn to show how many miles on the earth a given length represents. (See Fig. 173.) Scale may also be expressed by a fraction, the numerator of which shows how many inches on the map are used to represent the number of inches on the earth indicated by the denominator. For instance, if we desire to express the scale of a map drawn on the scale of an inch to a mile, it may be done in several ways. A line one inch long and labeled one mile would give a measure which could easily be used in finding any distances on the map desired. The fraction $\frac{1}{63,360}$ would mean the same thing; that is, that one inch on the map represents a mile, or 63,360 inches, on the earth's surface. We can see from

this how necessary it is to make use of the scale in studying a map.

On all maps of large areas the meridians of longitude and the parallels of latitude are shown as continuous black lines. These lines are numbered to show the position of the area they enclose in relation to the earth as a whole.

In this book the scale is shown by a line which represents a certain number of miles. This scale is placed with the title of the map and other information, which together form the *legend*. In comparing areas on different maps the scale on which the maps are drawn must always be taken into account. Continents should be compared on a world map; the countries of a continent on a large-scale map of that continent; and the states and provinces of a country on a large-scale map showing the entire area of that country. It is only by knowing the scale on which any two maps are drawn that we can accurately compare all or parts of their areas.

Map Projections. In large-scale maps the meridians run up and down the map, and the parallels across the map. Owing, however, to the fact that the earth's surface is curved and the map sheet flat, it is very hard to show large areas in their true proportions on a map, as can readily be seen by any one who tries to flatten out a large piece of orange peeling without breaking it. Therefore world and continent maps are drawn according to some definite plan which will tell the truth as closely as possible. These plans are called *projections*.

In those maps in which the meridians and parallels are at right angles to each other the earth's surface is represented as though it were an unrolled cylinder, rather than an opened-out globe. In such maps the regions near the poles are expanded to cover more space on the map than the same amount of globe surface nearer the equator. Such maps are very convenient for showing directions, though

they may give us wrong impressions of areas and distances.

In every small map of a large area some form of projection is used, and it is necessary to know the projection as well as the scale of the map in order to understand it. For our purposes it is only necessary to remember that the meridians show the north-south lines, and the parallels the east-west lines. By the study of these lines we can tell the direction of one point from another, and by studying the scale we can estimate distances between them.



FIG. 23. *The Northern Hemisphere, which contains the greater part of the land of the world.*

Questions and Exercises

(1) What gives us our day? Our year? In which direction does the sun apparently move across the sky? The moon? The stars?

(2) Draw a two-inch circle to represent the earth's surface. Locate the poles. Draw the twilight circle and shade the part of the world in shadow as it would be on the twenty-first of March. On what other day would this circle have the same position? (3) Draw a diagram or picture to represent yourself standing at the equator on the twenty-second of September. Show where the sun would be at noon. Draw a companion picture to show where the sun would be at noon on the same day at your home. (4) In which direction would your

shadow point at noon at Buenos Aires on the twenty-second of September? Would your shadow be longer on that day at Buenos Aires or at Para?

(5) Counting thirty days to a month, calculate the number of hours of sunlight the north pole might receive in a year. Do the same at a place on the equator and compare results. (6) Draw a circle to represent the earth's outline. Show the Tropical Zone of Sunlight. Below the drawing write a statement telling why it is so called. Do the same for the Temperate Zones of Sunlight. State the special feature of these zones. (7) Trace the path of the sun in your sky to-day. At what time does the sun rise? At what time does it set? How

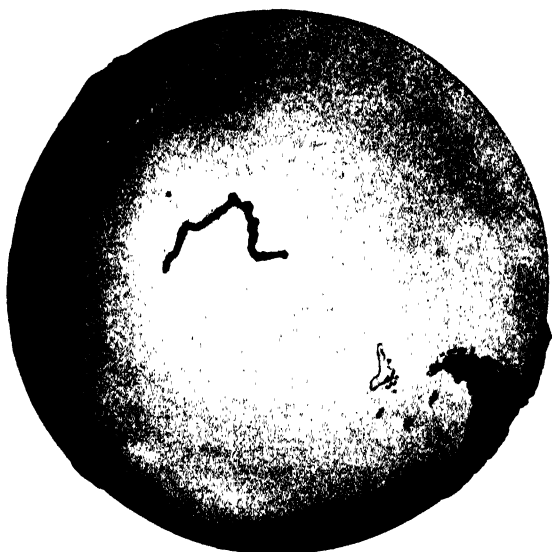


FIG. 24. The Southern Hemisphere, which is largely composed of water.

long is your period of daylight? As the season progresses will the sun move nearer or farther from the zenith at noon? Will the number of hours of sunlight increase or decrease?

(8) Find the latitude of Natal; Cairo; St. Paul; the large city nearest your home. (9) Explain why the people of Natal never see the Pole-star. Find a town in Africa where the Pole-star is visible on the horizon; find one in South America. What is the latitude of these towns? (10) What is the scale of the map of North America in this book? How many inches represent one mile? Find a map on a larger scale. How many square miles are represented by one square inch on the first map? On the second? (11) On the map of North America find the direction of St. Louis from New Orleans; of Salt Lake City from New York; of Savannah from Detroit.

V. THE CONTINENTS AND OCEANS

Distribution of Land and Water. As we look at the globe, which is our best representation of the larger features of the world, we see that the surface of the earth is made up of land and water. About seven-tenths of the surface is water and the remaining three-tenths land. (See Fig. 28.) Deep under the water, however, there is solid rock forming a part of the solid earth. It is in the greater depressions of the rock mass that we have oceans.

We are more interested in the land surface than in the water surface of the earth, for it is on the land that we make our homes. This visible part of the solid earth we know as the *land*. The larger part of the land area of the world is in the Northern Hemisphere. It is possible to hold the globe so that the visible half contains nearly all the land and the other half nearly all the water. (See Figs. 23 and 24.) Thus we may divide the world into the *Land Hemisphere* and the *Water Hemisphere*. (See Figs. 25 and 26.) The center of the land half, or the *Land Pole*, is near London, England, and the *Water Pole* is exactly opposite, near New Zealand. Thus England is in the center of the great inhabited land area of the world, and New Zealand lies in the vast uninhabited water region.

Continents and Islands. The land of the world is mostly in a few great masses known as *continents*, though some of it is scattered over the world in smaller masses known as *islands*. (See Figs. 25 and 26.) In many places the land of the continents extends off shore for several miles to an edge where the depth of the ocean increases suddenly. These great shallow areas are known as *continental shelves*, because they are really parts of the adjoining continents. (See Fig. 173.) Islands rising above a continental shelf, like the island of Great Britain, are known as *continental*

FIG. 25. *The Land Hemisphere.*

islands to contrast them with the *oceanic* islands which rise above the ocean water far from any land, and with the islands lying close to the coast, but separated from it by extremely deep water. The Pacific Ocean is thickly set with small oceanic islands, and Madagascar is a good instance of an oceanic island close to a great continent.

Surface of the Continents. An area of land is not called a continent, however, merely because of its size, but also because of the arrangement of its surface features. All the greater land masses are made up of highlands and lowlands, and the highest highland in each case is nearest to the greatest ocean. The land, therefore, slopes gradually downward from the highest highland toward the smaller oceans. In many cases there is a smaller highland which interrupts the lowland, as in North America where we

FIG. 26. *The Water Hemisphere.*

have the great Cordilleran Highland on the west, and the smaller Appalachian Highland rising slightly above the great lowland of the eastern part of the continent.

According to this description we have five continents — North America, South America, Eurasia (Europe and Asia), Africa, and Australia. (See Figs. 7 and 8.) Eurasia is, for convenience, often called two continents, but it is really one great land area. A few years ago Australia was called an island by some geographers, and a continent by others. As it fits the description given above, however, it is now called a continent by everybody.

The Ocean. Surrounding the land masses of the world is the great body of salt water, the *Ocean*, of which we have already spoken. While the surface of this water area is continuous, and vessels can go from one seaport to another, the continents so divide the mass

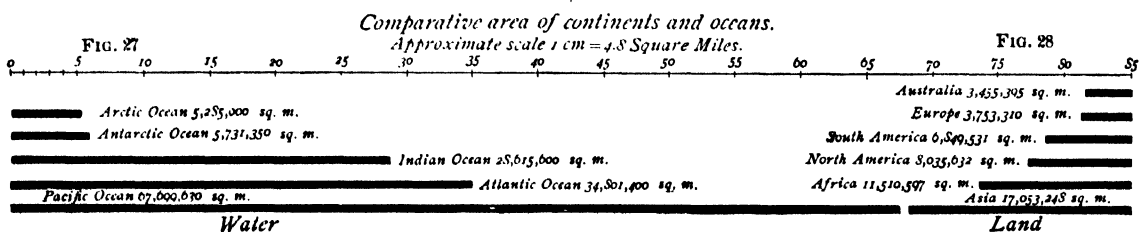
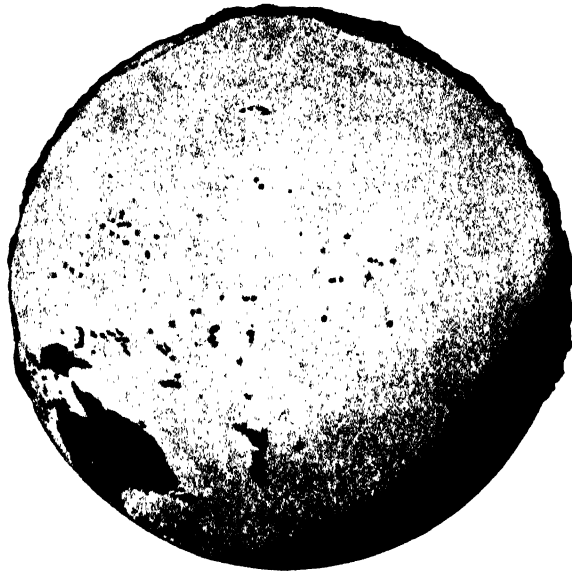


FIG. 29. *The Atlantic Ocean.*

into more or less separate basins that, for convenience, these basins are called different oceans. (See Fig. 98.) The great oceans are the Pacific, the Atlantic, the Indian, the Arctic, and the Antarctic. Certain arms of these oceans are so surrounded by land that they are known as *Seas*, like the Red Sea or the Mediterranean Sea. (See Figs. 29, 30, and 31.)

Ocean Eddies. The water of the oceans and seas is commonly in motion in a series of *currents*, due in part to the effect of the wind blowing constantly over their surface. The currents of the oceans, however, differ in their direction and character from those in seas. The currents in the seas depend on the amount of water received from inflowing rivers as compared with the amount lost by evaporation. The Mediterranean Sea, for instance, loses more

FIG. 30. *The Pacific Ocean.*

water by evaporation than it receives. Hence a current flows into it from the Atlantic through the Straits of Gibraltar. The conditions are reversed in the Baltic Sea.

In the ocean the surface water is continually in motion in a great circling eddy, which follows a very definite path. In both the Northern and Southern Hemispheres the currents move from east to west in low latitudes and from west to east in higher latitudes. (See Fig. 98.) Thus the eddy moves in the direction of the hands of a watch in the Northern Hemisphere and in the opposite direction in the Southern Hemisphere.

In order to be accurate, therefore, we must divide the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian oceans each into two oceans, according to whether they are in the Northern or Southern

FIG. 31. *The Indian Ocean.*

hemisphere, because each has a separate eddy in each hemisphere. The Antarctic Ocean moves regularly in a great eddy about the south pole and so is an ocean; but the Arctic Ocean, so called, is not an ocean, as it does not fit the pattern. It is merely a sea which has been called an ocean for so long that we must use the same name, though we know it is not correct. We shall find out more about the movements of water in the seven oceans when we study ocean currents.

Let us now study more about the land on which we have our homes and from whose soil we get our food, our materials for clothing, and our wood or bricks or stone from which we build our houses.



FIG. 32. A flat plain in South Dakota, where the slope is very gentle.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Name two *continental* islands off the west coast of Europe; two off the north coast; two off the east coast of Asia; three off the east coast of North America. (2) Name two *oceanic* islands in the Atlantic; three in the Pacific; two in the Indian Ocean. (3) To which class do the following islands belong: Tasmania; Cyprus; the Bermudas; Trinidad; Iceland? (4) Toward which ocean does the great lowland of each continent slope? (5) Name the five continents in the order of their size. (6) What continents lie in the land hemisphere? What continent is in the water hemisphere? What effect should its position have on its commerce? (7) Fill out the following chart by consulting a map of the world and the maps of the various continents:

OCEAN	Arms	Continents entered
Atlantic . . .		
Pacific		
Indian		
Arctic		

VI. RIVERS AND RIVER VALLEYS

The Landscape. The landscape which we see about us is made up of slopes, over which we travel, and down which the water runs after a rain, seeking lower ground. These slopes are parts of river valleys. In some places we find the slopes are steep and long. We then describe the country as being hilly or mountainous. In others the slopes are very gentle, and we say the land is flat and like a plain. (See Fig. 32.) No two regions are exactly alike, however, for the slopes to be seen in one landscape are not like those in another. It is the variety of landscape that gives beauty to a

region and makes traveling pleasant.

Wherever we go we find slopes and valleys, and in most valleys we may see flowing rivers along which people live

and build their towns and cities. Rivers help to change the slopes of valleys; they are of service in turning mill wheels, in supplying water to the soil, and to reservoirs of cities, and as waterways for commerce. Rivers and river valleys should therefore be studied with care.

The Formation of Rivers. If we go where two slopes meet at their lower edges, in time of rain we shall find a stream of water, just as water flows down the line where the sloping roofs of two houses join. Such a stream we ordinarily call a *brook*, a *creek*, or a *rill* if it is small, and a *river* if it is large. In some cases the water is clear and beautiful; in others it is muddy and brown. The muddy color is due to particles of *detritus* which the water is carrying away from land. If the detritus is large, we call the pieces *boulders*; small stones we call *gravel*; small, sharp, hard fragments are known as *sand*, while fine, soft, light, black, brown, or gray

particles which float in the water are called *mud* or *clay*.

The clear stream also carries detritus away from the land, even though none may be visible rolling along the bed. Some of the clearest streams in the world contain a great quantity of earth material dissolved in the water. This material is common salt and many other easily dissolved substances which are secured from the rocks. These *salts*, as they are called, are carried out to the ocean and give it its saltiness. Where the slopes are steep, as they are in many mountainous regions, the pieces of rock carried along may be so large and heavy that they bang together, making a crackling sound, which can be heard above the noise of the fast-flowing water. (See Fig. 33.)

What a River Is. Every stream of water carries along detritus as it flows through the land, and the detritus is as much a part of the stream as is the water. Hence we need to think of a river, not as water merely, but as *a stream of water and detritus moving through the land*. The water and the detritus are moving down hill toward the lowest part



FIG. 33. A river in Switzerland, showing boulders carried in time of flood.



FIG. 34. The Platte River in Nebraska during a dry period. There is more detritus than water showing.

of the earth's surface, which is the ocean. In dry regions the amount of water moving down the slopes may be very small, and the detritus may be more conspicuous than the water, while in other cases, as we have seen, the detritus is invisible. Thus the proportion between the water and the detritus may vary greatly in different regions. (See Fig. 34.)

River Basins and Systems; Divides. All the land whose surface water and detritus are moving toward the ocean down one great river we call the *basin* of that river. All the streams which combine to make one great *main* or *master* stream we call a *river system*. (See Fig. 36.) Each of the smaller streams which *contributes* water and detritus to the master stream is a *tributary*. (See Fig. 36.) As there is no region which does not have slopes, river basins are found everywhere over the earth.

As we climb the slope from a stream toward its head, we finally reach a point from which the land slopes in at least two directions. If we try to go from one river basin to another along any line, we always pass over a point from which the water could flow in either direction. The line marking off one basin from another is known

as a *divide*. During a rainstorm it divides the water going down one slope from that going down the neighboring slope, as the ridgepole of a house does. (See Fig. 35.)

The Work of Rivers; Valleys. As the running water moves through the land it continually changes the form of the land by removing materials from the surface. Thus a river is doing work, for it is gathering up rock detritus and carrying it away. A river works more rapidly where it flows quickly and more slowly where it flows gently. Therefore, streams wear the land away most rapidly near their heads. Here they cut sharply into the rocks much as a saw cuts a gash in a log, and form narrow, steep-sided gorges, which are one kind of *valley*. If the stream and the weather keep on wearing away the rocks, the valley will be cut deeper and broader, and more of the land will be removed, until finally all the land may be worn down as low as it can be, and still permit the streams to run down the faint slopes.



FIG. 35. Divides in a mountainous country. The highest ridges form the main divide, the lower slopes the lesser divides.

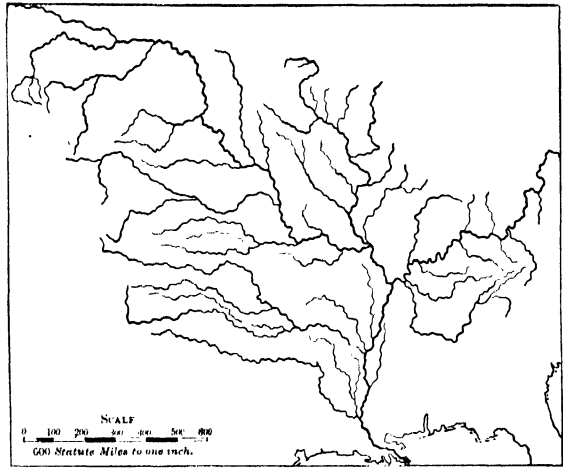


FIG. 36. The Mississippi River system, including large branches, many smaller branches, and a large extent of land surface drained.

Young River Valleys; Canyons; Water Gaps.

A river which has just begun its work we call a *young* river, because it has worn away but little of the land through which it runs. (See Fig. 37.) It has done but a small part of the work waiting to be done during its long life. A *young valley*, therefore, is a valley that has been but little worn, and is narrow in proportion to its depth. Such young valleys are usually found near the headwaters of rivers, but may be found wherever a rock wears away very slowly, so that here the river valley remains narrow, while perhaps upstream it is broad and flat.

A young valley, if it is small, is often called a *gorge*, *glen*, *ravine*, or *chasm*, and if very deep a *canyon*. The greatest young valley in the world is the Grand Canyon of the Colorado in Arizona. In places it is more than a mile deep and about thirteen miles wide in its widest portion. (See Fig. 38.) Narrow young valleys are often hard to cross, because one scrambles down one side and up the other with great difficulty. (See Frontispiece.) People do not as a rule, therefore, live in young valleys, because there are no gentle slopes on which they can raise crops or build their houses.

Sometimes a broad valley contracts for a

short distance to a narrow gorge, because of a barrier of rock or a mountain ridge. This stretch of narrow valley becomes important because all railroads, highways, and canals in the valley must pass this one point. At such points there is often a town. These short, young valleys are sometimes known as *water gaps* (see Fig. 39), like that cut by the Delaware in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, or the gap of the Potomac at Harpers Ferry.

Waterfalls and Lakes. When a river is young, its course in the mountains and hills is often irregular. In places it bounds along in *rapids*, or it may leap over cliffs or down very steep slopes, forming a *waterfall*. (See Fig. 41.) A great waterfall like that of Niagara is often known as a *cataract*. A fall made by a small stream leaping a great distance is commonly called a *cascade*. Many of the cascades in the White Mountains of New Hampshire are famed for their beauty the country over.

In some places the water finds a barrier in its course, behind which it must accumulate before it can flow over the edge. Then it forms a quiet stretch of water known as a *lake* or *pond*. (See Fig. 42.) Water may flow into the lake by several streams known

as *inlets*, but as a rule it flows out at only one place, the *outlet*. In some regions lakes also occur in basins in the ground and have no outlet. If such a basin should fill up, the water would flow over the lowest point in the bounding rim and a stream would be formed.

The Uses of Lakes and Waterfalls.

Lakes and waterfalls are often helpful to us. Waterfalls are sometimes so beautiful or grand that people travel great distances to see them. The force of the falling water is frequently used to turn wheels, to give power to mills, and to operate dynamos and other machines. A portion of the power of Niagara is now used to develop electricity for heating and lighting in the city of Buffalo, twenty miles away.

Lakes also may be noted for their beauty, and their leeward sides are frequently chosen as sites for summer homes and camps. Large lakes or long narrow lakes are much used as



FIG. 37. Ausable Chasm, near Keeseville, New York.
A young valley in which the stream is cutting rapidly.

lines of travel and commerce, because water transportation is usually cheaper than land transportation.

The greater part of the traveling and exploration in very early days was by way of lakes and rivers. The Great Lakes and Lake Champlain especially were used by the early missionaries and explorers. The American

Indians of the eastern states were famous for their skill in managing a canoe, and on many of the rivers and lakes of the northern states Indians still get their living largely by acting as guides for travelers and sportsmen.

Lakes are useful in another way. They act as filters for the streams that flow into and out of them. The detritus brought into the lakes settles to the bottom, and the water flows from the lakes clear and beautiful. This is well illustrated by the St. Lawrence River, which is very clear where it flows out of Lake Ontario. The fine detritus deposited on the bottom of a lake and the accumulated vegetation gradually fill it up, until, in the course of time, it is changed into a marshy spot covered with trees and plants and known as a *swamp*, or even into firm land suitable for farming. (See Fig. 42.) There are thousands of such places in our north-eastern states which were formerly small lakes.

Whenever a large lake has dried up or been drained, as sometimes happens, the bottom or floor forms a flat plain, and usually makes fertile farming

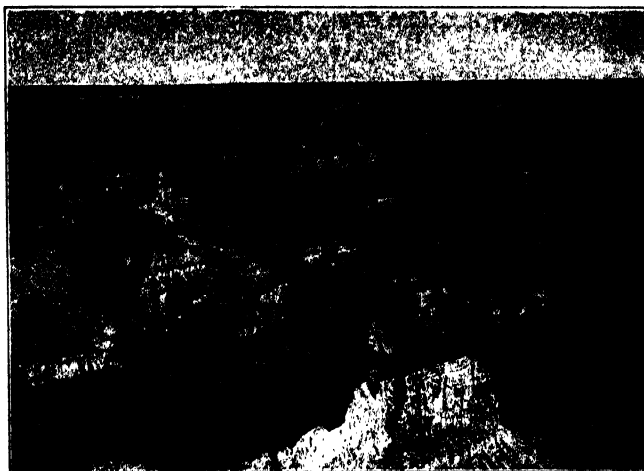


FIG. 38. A canyon. A general view of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado.

what ocean was it moving? (4) Study the picture of the Swiss river in this chapter. (5) Does it carry much or little detritus? (6) How is it different from the brook you have described? (7) Locate on a map some river you have seen. (8) Of what use is this river to the people who live near it? (9) To what river system does it belong? (10) Trace on the map a divide between this river basin and a neighboring basin; between two tributaries of the same river. (11) Have you ever stood on a divide? (12) Where was it? (13) Trace the divide between the Mackenzie and the Yukon; the Arkansas and the Red rivers. (14) Write in one column the chief river systems of North America; in another those of Africa; in another those of Asia.

(15) Study the pictures of young valleys in this chapter. (16) Draw a cross-section of Ausable Chasm. (17) Is the valley wider at the top or at the bottom? (18) Can you tell why? (19) What is the difference between a gorge and a chasm? (20) Why do railroads follow river valleys in crossing a mountain range? (21) Explain why

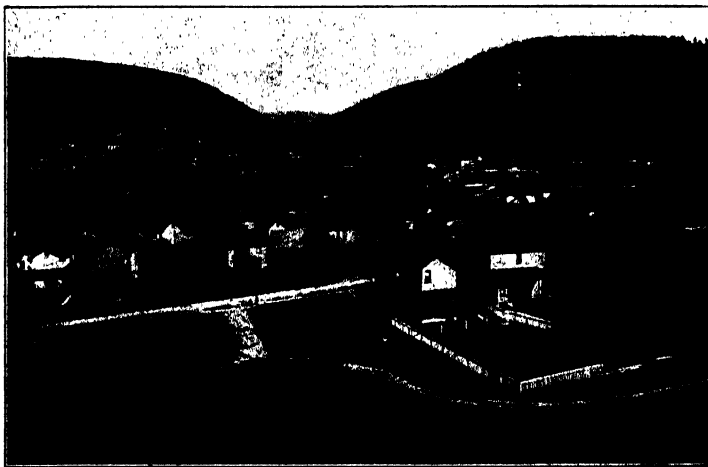


FIG. 39. Tyrone, Pennsylvania, built on a broad plain at the end of a water gap in the basin of the Juniata River.

Tyrone grew up at that point. (Fig. 39.)

(22) Locate on your map the Delaware Water Gap.

(23) Why must a railroad or highway pass through this gap? (24) Give one reason why a town is likely to grow up at such a water gap.

(25) Draw Lake Winnipeg with its inlet and outlet. (26) On the same sheet of paper draw a map of a lake you have seen, with its inlet and outlet. (27) Which part of a lake, the head or the foot, generally begins to fill up first? (28) Name four lakes in Canada. (29) Study the picture in this chapter that shows a filled-in portion of a lake. (Fig. 42.) Why should this lake bottom or plain make good farming land?

(30) Name six lakes in North America that are used for transportation; two in Europe. (31) Name and locate three lakes in Northern New England. (32) Name four lakes which lay in the routes of early explorers of our country.

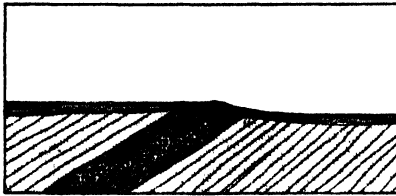


FIG. 40. Diagram of a rapids where the water of a lake flows out over strong rock.

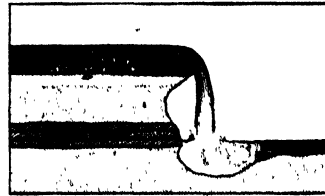


FIG. 41. Diagram of a waterfall.

A mature valley generally has but few lakes, because the stream by this time has succeeded in wearing down the barriers in its course, so that it can flow freely. There may be occasional waterfalls, however, where some unusually strong barrier exists.

Sinks. In those regions where the underlying rock is limestone, the water frequently dissolves away the rock, forming small basin-like bowls. The water flows from all sides toward these holes in the ground, and sinks out of sight. Such basins are commonly known as *sinks*. The water from these sinks runs along underground

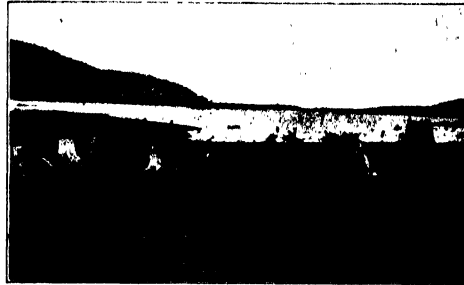


FIG. 42. A New England lake gradually filling up with detritus and decaying vegetation.

VII. RIVERS AND RIVER VALLEYS

(Continued)

Mature River Valleys. As young valleys grow old and are worn into more and more gentle slopes, the valleys become valuable for occupation if located where people can live. A broad, middle-aged, or *mature* valley, like the Shenandoah Valley, is often devoted to farming, and has railroads and highways. Mature valleys are often thickly

and sometimes reappears miles away as a large spring. Such rivers are sometimes known as *lost rivers*. If the outlet to a sink becomes closed, the water accumulates, forming a lake. There are many such sink regions and lost rivers in eastern Tennessee and northern Alabama.

Deposits in Mature Valleys; Alluvial and Flood Plains.

The slopes in a mature valley are more gentle than those in a young valley, and along the main stream they often take the form of a



FIG. 43. A farm scene in a mature valley.



FIG. 44. The old peneplain of New England, as it appears in New Hampshire.

flat plain. Such plains are known as *alluvial plains*. They have been built up out of the detritus that the stream, owing to its lack of force, could not carry farther. (See Fig. 46.) If alluvial plains are flooded at times of

high water, as often occurs, they are called *flood plains*. (See Fig. 45.)

These plains, because of their fine soil, level surface, and nearness to water, are frequently good farming regions. If narrow and bordered by steep slopes, they furnish perhaps the only route that carriage roads and railroads can follow.

The alluvial plain of the lower Mississippi is one of the largest and most important river-made plains in the world. (See Fig. 47.) Almost any small stream, however, will have small patches of alluvial plain along its course.

Alluvial Fans. When a tributary stream flows from the steep side of a valley on to the gently sloping floor of the main valley, its force is suddenly weakened, and it deposits a large amount of the detritus it is carrying. This detritus is usually built up in the form of a *cone*, pointing into the mouth of the tributary, and extending out in an even slope into the main valley. These cones are shaped some-

what like an open fan, and are therefore frequently called *alluvial fans*. Oftentimes the tributary divides and flows down over the face of the cone in several channels, called *distributaries*, because they scatter the water and detritus in many directions.

Alluvial fans are particularly abundant in the dry regions of the world where the rivers have little volume and force. They may often be seen after a rain beside a gutter stream which has received side streams carrying much detritus.

Old Valleys. As the rivers go on wearing away the land, they gradually reduce the slopes until the region becomes very flat, with just enough incline to make the rivers run. Then a river and valley may well be called *old*, for most of the land to be worn away has already been removed. Alluvial plains abound in the lower portions of old rivers, be-

cause the force of an old river is not great enough to carry away the large amount

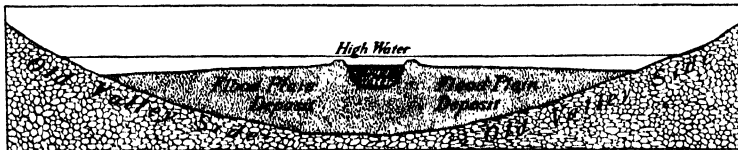


FIG. 45. Diagram of a flood plain.

of detritus brought down by the tributaries. The lower Ganges-Brahmaputra and the lower Mississippi are both old rivers. If the streams in a large part of a country should all become old at the same time, the whole

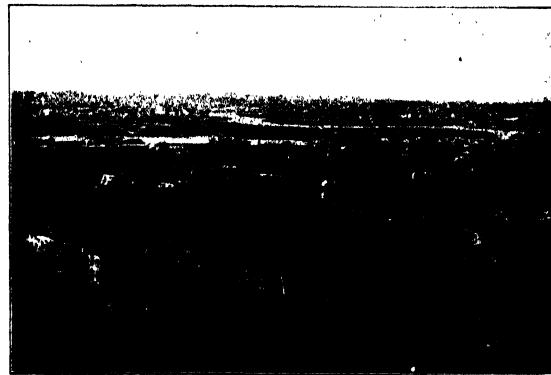


FIG. 46. The Charles River near Cambridge, Mass. An alluvial plain built up from the detritus of the winding river in the distance.

region would be worn down almost to a plain lying but little above the level of the sea.

Peneplains. At several times in the distant past the streams of the eastern part of our country have worn their valleys to such a plain-like form. We do not find many evidences of this condition, however, in the present rivers of the world. Such an old region, worn down *almost to a plain*, is known as a *peneplain*.

Peneplains occur in many parts of the world now, but they have been elevated since they were formed, and new valleys have been cut in them, so that we can see the peneplain only by climbing to the tops of the ridges. Then we find that all the ridges lie at approximately the same height, showing the former extent of the peneplain. The upland of New England above which the higher peaks rise only a few hundred feet is one of the best known peneplains in the world. (See Fig. 44.)

Monadnocks. If any one has seen a wooden floor worn almost through, he can easily imagine how elevations are formed on the land by the wearing away of the rocks. In such an old floor little elevations will often be left where there was a knot in the boards, or perhaps a nail. In the same way

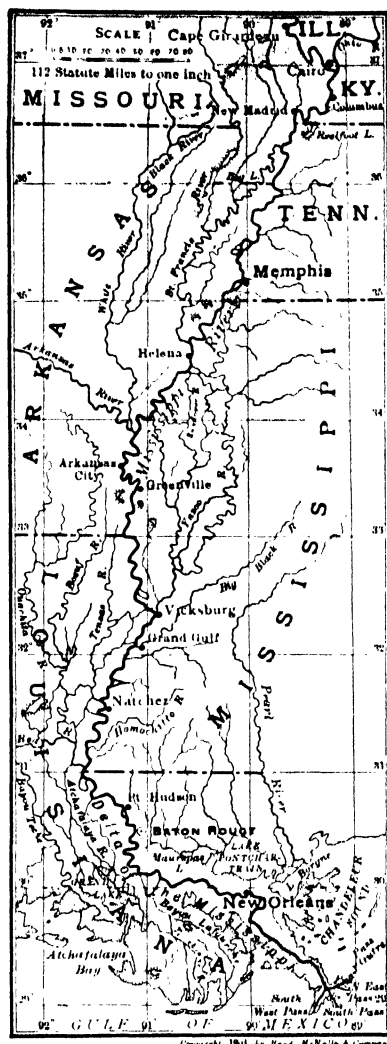


FIG. 47. A map of the alluvial plain of the Mississippi.

any particularly strong point in a region will persist when the neighboring country has been worn down to a peneplain. Such elevations are known as *monadnocks*, because they rise above the old peneplain surface, as Monadnock Mountain in New Hampshire rises above the old peneplain which may now be seen on the neighboring hilltops.

Meanders. A very old river usually has a large alluvial plain, a part of which may be a flood plain. As the slope of the river is gentle, and the water consequently flows slowly, it can carry only the finest detritus. Thus the particles forming an alluvial or flood plain in an old valley are extremely fine, and the soil is excellent. When a river flows so slowly and quietly, it cannot follow a straight course, as most young rivers do, but is turned from its path by the slightest obstacle; hence it follows a winding, snake-like, or meandering course. (See Fig. 48.) The curves are called *meanders*, because they are

like those of the Menderez (ancient Meander) River, which flows through Asia Minor.

In a meandering stream the water is deeper

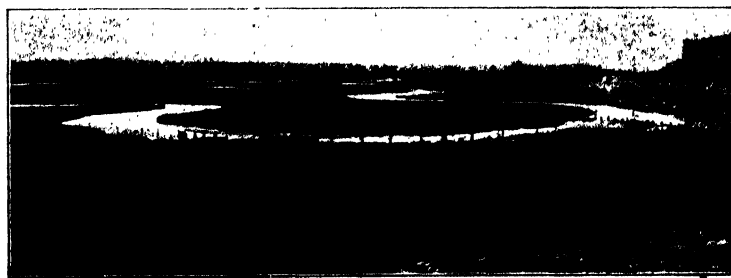


FIG. 48. Boulder Creek, Colo. A meandering stream.

and swifter on the outside of the curves than it is on the inside. The river often cuts into its shore on the outside, forming a steep bank,

while the inside shore slopes gently. Sometimes the meanders become so close together that finally the land separating them is cut through, thereby straightening the river. The meanders are then left as lakes in the shape of horseshoes, with the open side of the horseshoe facing the river. Such lakes are made by the river as it develops, and are very numerous in large, old rivers like the Mississippi. They are sometimes known as *oxbow lakes*, and the new stretch of river cutting across the neck of a meander is commonly called a *cut-off*. (See Fig. 49.) A cut-off often shortens the course of a river by many miles. Oxbows only make navigation the more difficult, and cut-offs are of little value, as they are usually made in streams that have a continually shifting channel.

Population in Old Valleys. Old river valleys, in countries where the climate is favorable, are, as a rule, occupied by farms, and often support a dense population. The most densely inhabited regions in the world are the old river valleys of southeastern Asia.

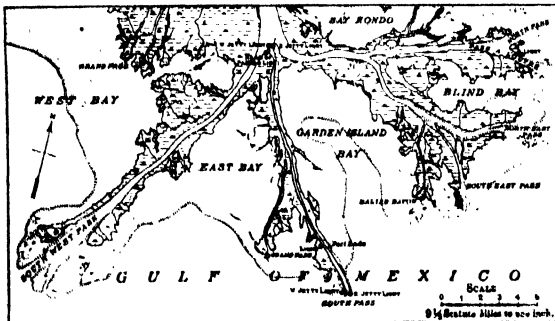


FIG. 50. The lower Delta of the Mississippi River.

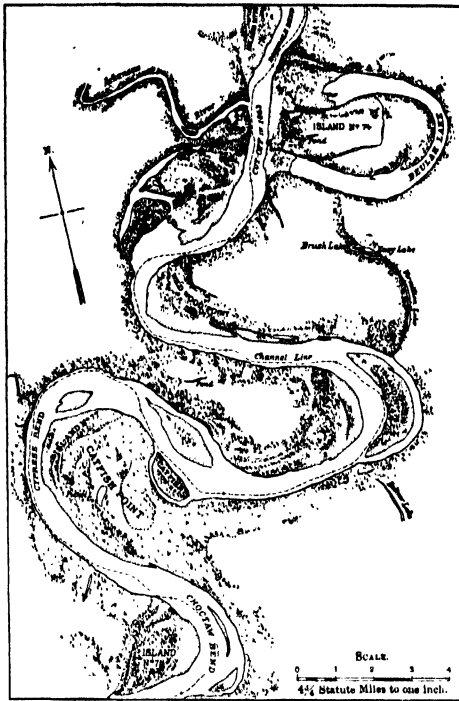


FIG. 49. A portion of the Mississippi River, showing meanders and an oxbow lake.

These regions, like the old valley of the Nile in Africa, or the Ganges-Brahmaputra in India, are famous because they have supported dense populations for a long period of time.

Deltas. Where a river flows into the ocean, or any body of standing water, such as a lake, or even into a quiet stretch of a larger river, most of the detritus is dropped near the mouth of the stream, thus building the land gradually into the water, and forming a *delta*, so named because of its resemblance to the Greek letter Δ . (See Fig. 50.) The deltas made from the detritus brought by old rivers are flat, and made of

very fine materials. Those made by a young river are often steeper in their slope, and made up of coarser material, like sand and gravel.

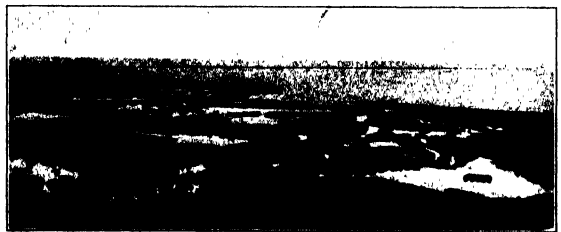


FIG. 51. The coastal margin of the Mississippi delta, showing how the land is built into the water.

The main stream frequently divides at the head of the delta and flows across it in several distributaries, as in the case of alluvial fans. The deltas of the Nile, the Ganges-Brahmaputra, and the Mississippi are very large, and have many distributaries. (See Fig. 51.)

Drowned Valleys. The land is slowly rising or settling in many parts of the world, and rivers flowing across such a rising or settling region are changed in many ways. It is not

easy to study the changes produced by an elevation of the land. We can easily see the effects of settling, because as the land slowly sinks, the ocean water gradually fills up the river basins, so that the portions of the valleys which were formerly above water are submerged and no longer visible. We say that such valleys have been *drowned*. (See Figs. 52, 53, and 54.)

If an old or mature valley is drowned, we have a broad arm of the sea, irregular in outline, into which flow many separate streams, formerly tributaries of the drowned master stream. Such drowned valleys are known as *estuaries*, and are very helpful in commerce because they usually form good harbors. (See Fig. 54.) The estuaries of Chesapeake Bay and the Hudson River and of San Francisco Bay are good illustrations of drowned valleys which are commercially of great importance.

If the river valley is narrow and young when it is drowned, we have a steep-walled,

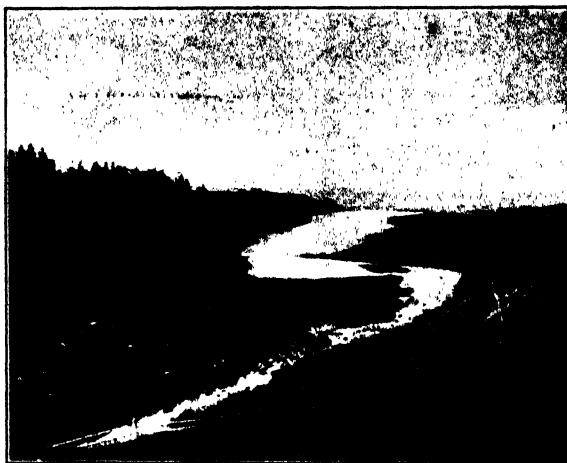


FIG. 52. An estuary in New Brunswick formed by the drowning of a small mature valley.

narrow valley known as a *fiord*. (See Fig. 55.) Fiords are often very beautiful, because of the rugged scenery about them, but they are not important in commerce because few people can live along the sides of such drowned valleys. The fiord of the Saguenay River, in Quebec, is one of the most beautiful in America, though

there are many well-known and splendid ones along the coast of British Columbia and Alaska. The coasts of Norway, of southern New Zealand, and southern Chile are also indented by magnificent fiords.



FIG. 54. The plain and the valleys seen in Fig. 53 after being drowned.

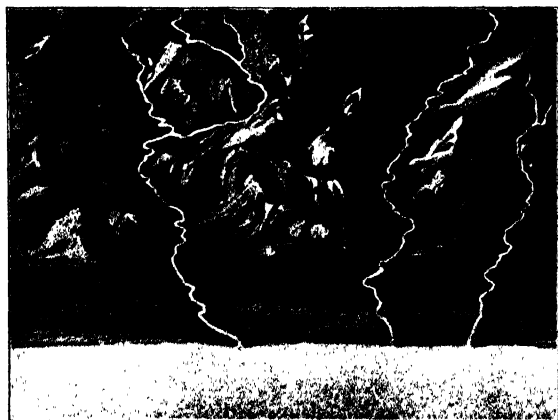


FIG. 53. Mature river valley, bordering a low coastal plain.

Hills and Valleys. As the rivers wear down the land about them, forming valleys, the stronger rocks, which are worn away more slowly, are left rising above the gentle slopes, often in isolated elevations known as *hills*. A hill, therefore, is a small part of the land that has not yet been worn down as low as the rest of the region. We shall see later that, as the land wears away, very high elevations, or *mountains*, are sometimes left between river valleys.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Examine the picture of a mature valley in this chapter. What can you say of its slopes, of its fitness for farming, for supporting a large population? (2) What is the character of the detritus carried by a mature river? (3) Why cannot such a river transport large boulders? (4) Tell how a river builds up its flood plain. (5) Why should such plains generally be good farming land? What dangers may threaten people living on such plains? (6) Locate the Mississippi flood plain; the Rhine flood plain; name two cities on each. (7) Which streams bring most detritus to the Mississippi, those from the east or those

(15) Name and locate five important deltas of Asia and name a city in each. What is the chief delta city of the Volga? Of the Rhine? Of the Rhone? (16) Name and locate five estuaries in North America which admit large vessels.

VIII. PLAINS, PLATEAUS, AND MOUNTAINS

What Plains and Plateaus Are. A great part of the surface of the world is composed of plains or plateaus, on which a large pro-

portion of the people of the world live. On a plain there are generally few elevations rising above the prevailing level of the country, the slopes are gentle, and, if the plain is not wooded, extensive views can be obtained in almost any direction.

A plain may be hundreds of miles in extent or it may contain only a few acres. (See Fig. 56.) In every case it either slopes gradually down to lower land

or water, or it is bordered by the somewhat steeper slopes of hills or mountains as are some of the western plains of the United States.

A plateau is characterized by slopes similar to those of a plain, but it often has a greater number of elevations rising above the general surface of the country. A plateau usually drops *abruptly* on one or more sides to lower land. The Cumberland Plateau in the southern Appalachian Mountains descends to the lower land to the east in a bold *cliff* or *escarpment*, in some places more than a thousand feet high.



FIG. 55. A Norwegian fjord formed by the drowning of a young valley.

from the west? Why? (8) Find portions of the Mississippi that meander. (9) Do you find meanders near the sources of rivers? Give the reason. (10) How many cut-offs do you find in Fig. 49? (11) What hindrances to navigation does such a river present? (12) Find out something interesting about the Mississippi flood plain; its cut-offs; its oxbow lakes. (13) How far up the Mississippi can ocean steamers go? What city is located there?

(14) Make a list of the chief cities on the Nile, the Ganges, the Yangtse-kiang, and the Mississippi, and place opposite each its population. Write below this exercise your reasons why these river valleys should support such a dense population.

Owing to the evenness of the surface of a plain or plateau, it is often impossible to tell from the top of the region whether it contains any

river valleys, so sharply are these sunk beneath the plain. Owing to the great altitude of a high plateau the rivers have a chance to cut deep valleys before they reach low levels. These river valleys often have nearly vertical sides, and by examining them we learn that the layers of rock in a plain and plateau are usually almost horizontal. The deepest and most wonderful river valley in the world is the Colorado Canyon, already mentioned, which has been cut into the Colorado Plateau in Arizona. (See Figs. 38 and 57.)

Low plains, in regions where the climate is favorable, are very productive and are densely inhabited. But many plateaus are so high that their climate will not permit of farming. These are often occupied, however, by people who are engaged in grazing. On both plains and plateaus the slopes are so gentle that if there are no deep river valleys to be crossed, roads and railroads can be built with equal ease in almost any direction. For this reason, in a newly discovered country, people rapidly occupy the plains,

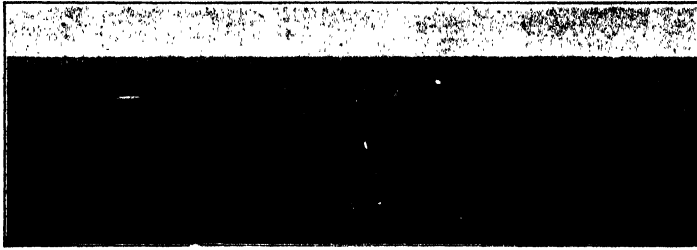


FIG. 56. A broad plain in Kansas.

where they can spread out and have plenty of room, as was illustrated in the occupation of the Great Central Plain of the United States.

Mountains. Every continent contains a certain area that rises into a great highland known as a *mountain system*. A mountain

system is usually made up of several nearly parallel series of heights known as *mountain ranges*, each of which usually has many points, or *peaks*, rising somewhat sharply above the rest of the ridge. (See Fig. 58.)

Any height rising sharply to a considerable altitude above the surrounding region is commonly known as a mountain. The term mountain, however, is more properly applied to any region in which the rocks have been folded or

turned on edge. (See Fig. 59.) During the folding and wrinkling of the earth the rocks may have been greatly heated so that they

have lost their original appearance. Every boy knows how a piece of iron can be made warm by pounding, and can therefore understand how the rocks of a mountain may be heated by being pressed together.

We know very little about the reasons for mountain building, but we know that



FIG. 57. The plateau of the Colorado Canyon.

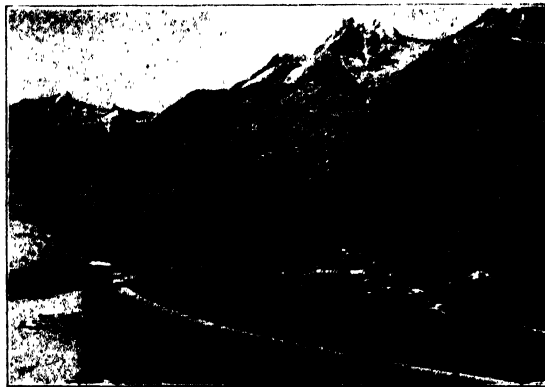


FIG. 58. A mountain range in the Pyrenees, showing peaks rising in the distance.



FIG. 59. *Rocks, on the southwest coast of England, showing how pressure forms mountain folds.*

mountain ranges are continually rising, just as we know that the continents are continually rising or settling. As a mountain range rises, it begins to be worn down, as are all land forms, and in this way furnishes detritus for the rivers to carry away. Thus the mountain peaks we see are but a part of the mass of rocks formerly existing there.

The Relation of Mountains to Man. Mountains usually contain many steep and long slopes, and are so rugged that they are often hard to travel through. Railroads and highways are built with difficulty across mountain districts. In some cases tunnels many miles in length have to be constructed for railroads to pass from one side of the range to the other. Mountains have always been barriers, hemming people in and keeping them from readily occupying the area beyond.

From the standpoint of commerce or travel, therefore, the important parts of a mountain system are the lowest points in the crests or ranges where people can get over most easily. Such low *gaps* or *passes* have always

been of great importance. (See Fig. 60.) In certain parts of our country, roads or trails were made through these natural gateways by the Indians and buffaloes that formerly occupied the region. In many cases, as for instance in West Virginia, these early paths are now used for railways or highways.

The high peaks are usually avoided except by those who wish to ascend them for the pleasure of mountain climbing, or for the view to be gained from them. As the air on mountains is always thinner and purer than that on the lower plains, these highlands are visited by many people in search of health or for pleasure, particularly in the summer time.

The highest peaks in the world have their summits covered with snow. (See Fig. 58.) Most of the other mountains are covered by forests, and are the homes of certain wild animals which can climb over the rocks and the steep slopes with ease. Therefore, mountains are often

visited by hunters in search of big game. Some mountains contain valuable minerals



FIG. 60. *A mountain pass in Norway.*

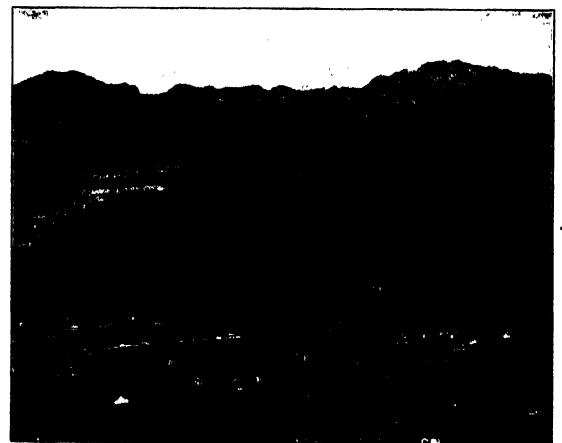


FIG. 61. *A mining town in Colorado.*

like gold, silver, and copper, and hence mining towns have sprung up in regions that never would have been occupied otherwise. (See Fig. 61.) Leadville and Cripple Creek, Colorado, are examples of such mining towns. Farming is impossible in mountain regions, except on the plains found in the occasional valleys lying between the ridges.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Locate the chief plains of North America.
- (2) Draw a sky line of a plain; of a mountainous region.
- (3) Why will the region of the Colorado Canyon never be densely populated?
- (4) Name plains of North America that are thickly populated; of Europe; of Asia.
- (5) Would you rather live on a plain or in a mountain valley? Why?
- (6) Name and locate five mountain ranges in Asia; five in Europe; ten in North America.
- (7) Describe some mountain peak you have seen or know from a picture.
- (8) Name and locate six peaks in the United States; six in Europe; four in South America.
- (9) Read about the ascent of some famous peak and describe it to your classmates.
- (10) Study the picture of a mountain fold in Cornwall; what part of this fold has been worn away?
- (11) What mountain ranges in the United States formed a barrier to the early settlers? Name and locate three rivers that cross this mountain wall.
- (12) Why are the passes over the Alps from Switzerland to Italy important?
- (13) What states in the United States are bounded in part by mountain ranges?
- (14) What countries in Europe are most mountainous?
- (15) Name and locate four mountain groups in North America much visited as pleasure resorts.
- (16) Name and locate one such group in Europe.

IX. UNDERGROUND WATER

Ground Water and Run-off. Only a certain part of the rain that falls runs down immediately toward the sea in rivers. A good deal of it is dried up or evaporated, and much of it soaks into the ground, becoming what we know as *ground water*. The cracks in the rocks are filled with water to very great depths.

It is this ground water soaking through the soil that feeds the plants and the trees. In all farming regions, therefore, it is important

to know how large a part of the rainfall will immediately run off, and how much will soak into the ground. The portion that immediately runs off is known as the *run-off*. Some soils, especially if they are sandy, will take up



FIG. 62. An irrigated field in Kansas.

water much more readily than others. Regions that are covered by forests or grass do not have as great a run-off as those that are barren of vegetation.

In regions where the run-off is very great the water is sometimes held back in large artificial reservoirs and fed out to the land as needed. This watering of the land, either with the water thus stored up or with water pumped from deep wells beneath the ground, is known as *irrigation*. (See Fig. 62.) Many regions, like parts of southern California and Spain, that would otherwise be deserts, have become fertile garden spots through irrigation.

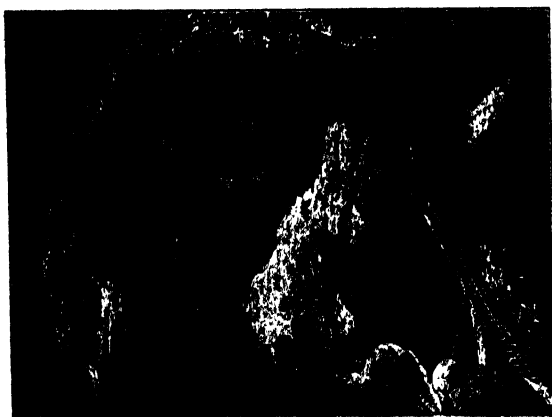


FIG. 63. The interior of a cave in New South Wales.

Wells and Springs. It is the underground water soaking through the soil that accumulates in a hole dug in the ground and forms a *well*. When the ground water finds its way to the surface again, as it often does, we have a *spring*. Every spring is one of the sources of some river which drains the region in which it is located. Every river has many such sources.

Caves. Limestone rocks are easily dissolved by water, so that in limestone regions much of the water often runs along beneath the surface, dissolving out an underground channel and forming what we call a *cave*. The cave water finally comes to the surface again at a lower level, and flows on as a river. Some of these caves are very large and have miles of underground passages. (See Fig. 63.) The Mammoth Cave of Kentucky is one of the best and largest examples in the world.

In the course of time a large part of the roof of a cavern may fall in, leaving perhaps one section in the form of a *natural bridge* crossing from one side of the valley to the other. Natural bridges are formed also in several other ways, but one of the most noted, that of western Virginia, on the headwaters of the James River, has been formed in this way.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What may be two reasons why the region pictured in Fig. 62 has to be irrigated? (2) What soils take up water readily? (3) What is a well? A spring? Describe a spring you have seen. (4) Is there much or little run-off where you live? How does the character of the soil affect this?

(5) What is the character of the soil about your home? (6) Does the rain soak into the soil easily? (7) Are wells common?

(8) Are the slopes in your vicinity covered with trees? How does this affect the run-off? (9) Why should the United States government wish to keep great forest areas from destruction? (10) Name some regions in the United States that have been made fertile through irrigation. (11) Where does the water in the reservoirs in these cases come from?

(12) Why is it necessary to irrigate vineyard slopes in Switzerland where the rainfall is moderately heavy? (13) Why is irrigation necessary in the Po Valley in Italy? In the Nile Valley?

(14) How may a *natural bridge* be formed in a limestone region? On a seashore? (15) Describe one you have seen pictured. (16) Locate Mammoth Cave; Luray Cavern; Natural Bridge. Tell how these caves were formed. Have you ever seen a cave that was not formed in the way these caves were? Tell about it. Find out about the animals of Mammoth Cave.



FIG. 64. A hot spring deposit in Yellowstone Park. The minerals in solution in the heated water gradually build these beautiful deposits.

X. VULCANISM

Hot Springs. In some regions of the world the water which has soaked into the ground comes to the surface again very much heated. This is because the interior of the earth is hot, and the water has penetrated far enough to become heated, even to the boiling point. When this water flows quietly to the surface like a spring we call it a *hot spring*. (See Fig. 64.)

Many places in our country are famous for their hot springs. Numerous hot springs exist in the Yellowstone National Park, in Arkansas, Colorado, Virginia, and some other states. Some hot springs bring to the surface water that is full of dissolved minerals, which make the water beneficial for people suffering from certain diseases. Hence, hot springs frequently become health resorts, where people go to drink or to bathe in the waters.

Geysers. In the Yellowstone National Park in Wyoming, in Iceland, and in certain parts of New Zealand, the hot waters spout out of the earth at regular intervals, forming intermittent hot springs, known as *geysers*. From some of these the water is thrown to a height of more than two hundred feet. (See Fig. 65.)

Geysers are beautiful and majestic, and some of them pour forth an enormous amount of water when in eruption. There are so many geysers and hot springs in one part of the Yellowstone National Park that the river



FIG. 65. Old Faithful Geyser in Yellowstone Park.

carrying away their water is appropriately named Firehole River.

The dissolved minerals brought to the surface through hot springs and geysers often crystallize again as the waters cool. Thus deposits of minerals are built up about the mouth of the geysers or springs, forming a considerable elevation above the region round about. (See Fig. 66.) Some of these hot waters contain a low form of plant life, which gives a most beautiful color to the deposits.

Volcanoes. The waters that penetrate

deep into the earth sometimes come to the surface again in the form of steam. The steam may be so hot that it melts the rocks through which it penetrates. Then the steam, hot water, and melted rock either flow gently out upon the surface or are blown into the air with tremendous force and to an



FIG. 66. A cone built by the mineral deposits of a hot spring in Yellowstone Park.

enormous height, forming a *volcanic eruption*. (See Fig. 459.)

In most eruptions a large part of the rock material poured forth falls about the opening, building up a conical peak known as a *volcano*. (See Fig. 67.) At the top of the peak there is usually a saucer-like depression, known as the *crater*. At the bottom of the crater is the opening, or *throat*, of the volcano, through which issues the mass of steam, hot water, and rock. The melted rock is called *lava*.

In some cases the lava, instead of coming to the surface, penetrates cracks in the earth, caused by the explosive force of the eruption, and fills them up. Later, when the overlying weaker rock has been worn away, the hardened lava will be revealed. This is the history of the rocks forming the beautiful Palisades of the Hudson. When the volcanic eruption is intense the melted rock is blown out in fine particles which may be carried vast distances, falling as fine dust known as *volcanic ashes*. Sometimes the rock is only partially melted and is blown forth in large, hot masses known as *bombs* or as great unmelted blocks of stone. (See Fig. 68.)

Perhaps the best known and most symmetrical volcano is Vesuvius. During a great eruption, nearly two thousand years ago, its ashes buried two neighboring cities, Herculaneum and Pompeii, killing great numbers of

people. During a severe eruption in 1906, Naples was deeply covered with ashes, which the winds carried across the Adriatic, and lava flowed far down the cone. The last great volcanic eruption was that of Mont Pelée, in the summer of 1902. (See Figs. 68 and 337.)

Mont Pelée is on the island of Martinique, in the Caribbean Sea. This eruption caused an enormous amount of damage, and killed more people

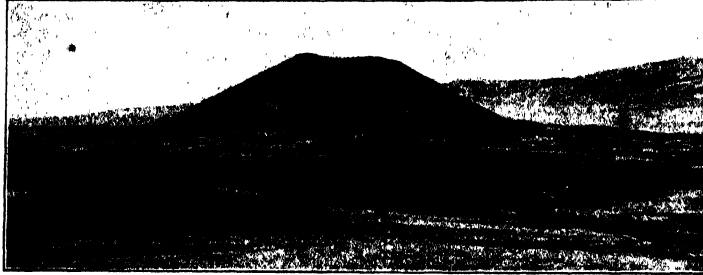


FIG. 67. The cone of an extinct volcano, New Mexico.

than any other known volcanic explosion.

Extinct Volcanoes. When a volcano loses its energy and ceases to be active, the lava cools in the throat of the crater and forms a dense mass of solid volcanic rock. The crater, being plugged up, forms a saucer-like basin in which water may accumulate after a rain, forming a lake. In some of the volcanoes of Arizona and New Mexico which

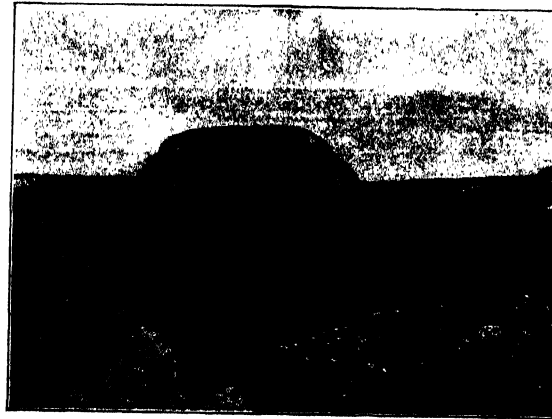
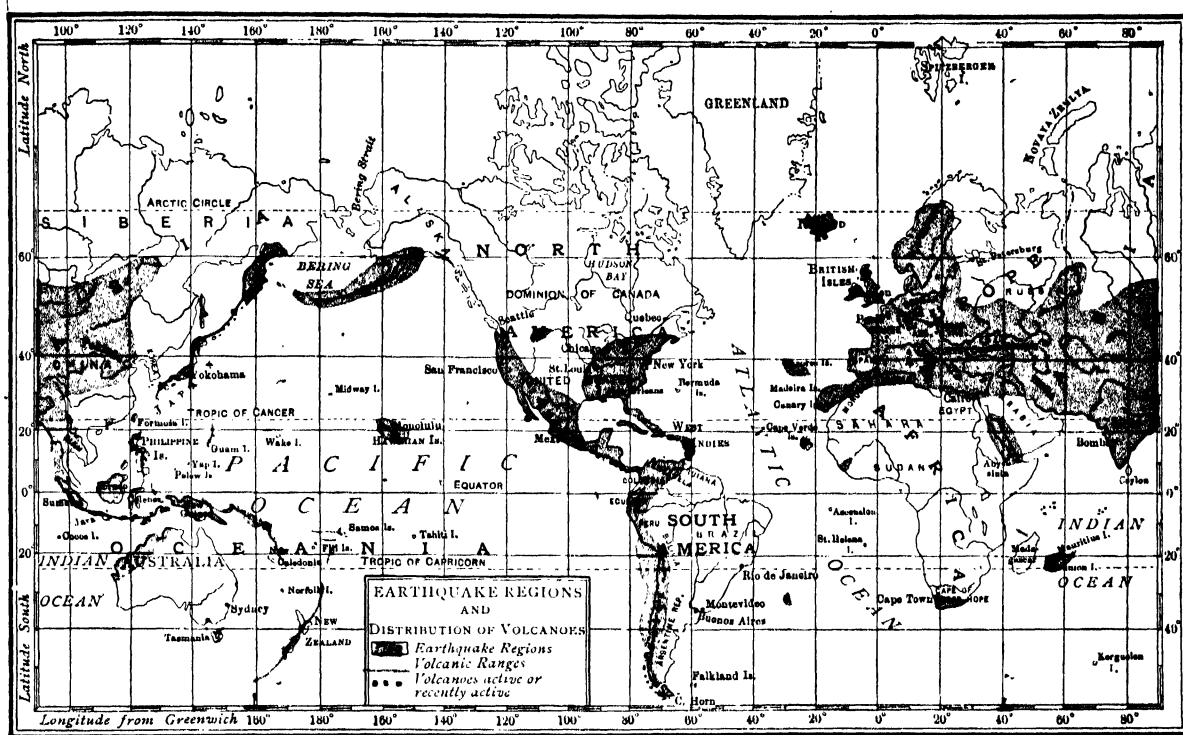


FIG. 68. A great block from Mount Pelée, Martinique.

have long been extinct there are such volcanic lakes, but the best examples are in central France, where many of them are found. In Oregon there is a famous crater lake, deeply set amid encircling cliffs of great beauty, but this lake is unlike those noted above, because it has not been formed in the same

way. In this instance the top of the volcano has disappeared, and the lake lies in the depression thus formed. (See Fig. 181.)

As a volcano is gradually worn down, the ashes and lava forming the cone are worn away more quickly than the lava in the



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FIG. 69. Earthquake regions and distribution of volcanoes.

throat. Thus the lava plug may be left | ject to frequent earthquakes the houses are rising sharply above the rest of the country in the form of a peak. Such volcanoes, called *old* volcanoes because it has been a long time since they were in eruption, have lost their original shape and much of their mass. Old volcanoes exist in many parts of the world, and are numerous in western New Mexico. (See Figs. 67 and 70.)

Earthquakes. During volcanic eruptions, and oftentimes in mountain building, the rocks of the earth are cracked and perhaps ground against one another until the whole earth for miles around shakes from the blow, causing what we know as an *earthquake*. These are sometimes so severe that houses and bridges are shaken down. In countries sub-

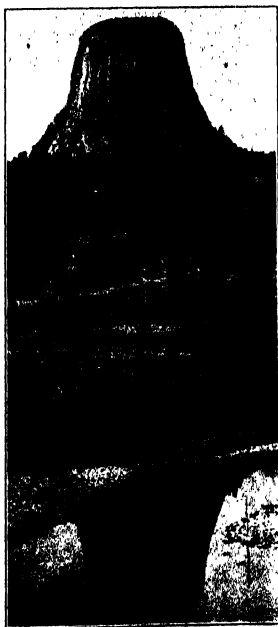


FIG. 70. Devils Tower, Black Hills, Wyoming. Remnant of an old volcano.

usually built of wood, and with only one or two stories, so that they will not easily be overthrown by an earthquake shock. Buildings twenty or more stories high, such as are found in many American cities, would be severely shaken and much damaged by a severe earthquake.

Earthquakes sometimes occur beneath the sea and start a great wave of water, much as a wave may be formed by suddenly striking the bottom of a pan of milk or water. Such a wave may travel toward the shore, increasing in height as it goes, and, advancing upon the land, may cause great damage and loss of life. In 1891 an earthquake wave struck the shore of Japan in the night and

swept away a large village, killing the people. The wave was not noticed out on the sea, for fishermen from that village knew nothing of it until they came ashore and found their village swept away. Sometimes earthquakes cause the land to crack open and make it rise or fall suddenly, but these effects are usually not so serious as those resulting from an earthquake wave.

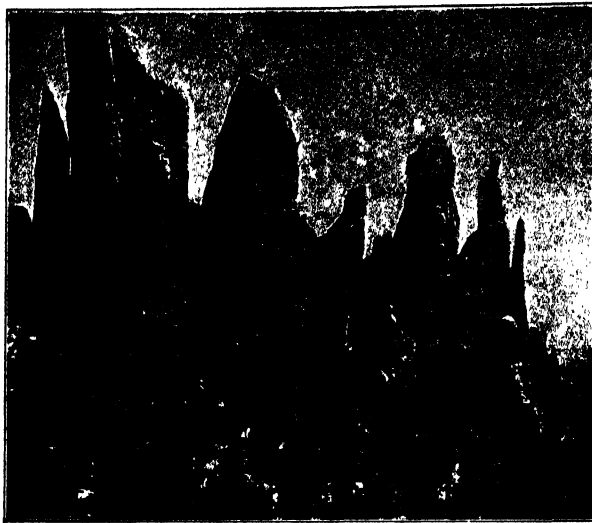


FIG. 71. Granite Needles, Black Hills, South Dakota. The strong rock has not worn away as rapidly as the weaker rock.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Name some of the evidences of the interior heat of the earth. (2) Locate some famous hot springs; geysers; volcanoes.

(3) Locate the Yellowstone National Park and tell about its geysers and hot springs.

(4) Draw a picture of Mount Vesuvius or some other active volcano, indicating the *crater* and the *throat*. (5) Of what is the *cone* of the volcano composed? How is it built up? (6) Bring to the class a good description of an ascent of Mount Vesuvius, or find out something about the great eruption of Mont Pelée. (7) Locate Mount Etna; Stromboli; Mount Shasta; Fujiyama. (8) Draw a picture of one of these volcanic peaks and find out something of interest about it. (9) How does an eruption change the surface and aspect of a region?

(10) Why may the Palisades of the Hudson be called a product of a volcanic eruption? (11) Why does the lava plug of an old volcano rise as a peak above the surrounding country?

(12) What are some of the results of earth-

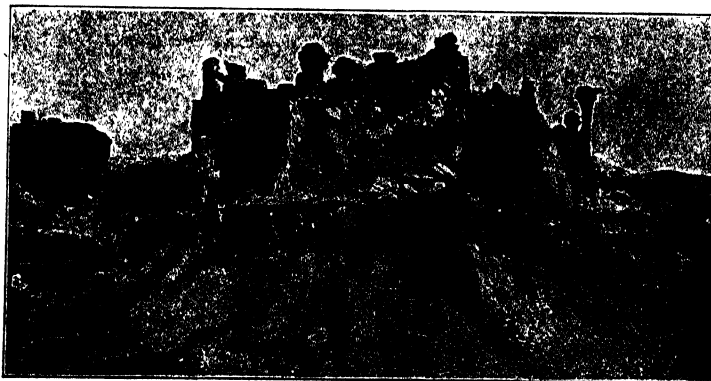


FIG. 72. Weathered peaks and slopes of loose detritus in South Dakota. Note how the strong rock layers protect the weak rock.

quakes? (13) Mention a part of the world where earthquakes have been frequent lately.

(14) Find out about the last severe series of earthquakes in the United States.

(15) Find out what part of our country has the most frequent earthquakes. (16)

Why do severe earthquakes usually precede a volcanic eruption?

(17) Name three volcanoes in North America. (18) Name the volcanoes in the Hawaiian Islands.

(19) In Europe.

XI. THE ATMOSPHERE

The Air About Us. Extending over us to an unknown height, and beneath in the spaces between the rocks of the earth, and even, to a certain extent, in the water of the oceans, rivers, and lakes, there is a mixture of invisible gases, commonly called *air*. The portion of the air which lies above the surface of the earth is known as the *atmosphere*.

The atmosphere may be hot or cold, wet or dry, light or heavy. From our daily experience we are familiar with its changes in temperature and with changes in the amount of

moisture that it contains. Differences of temperature produce the most conspicuous differences between winter and summer. Differences in weight produce those movements of air over the

surface of the ground which we call *winds*. Differences in the amount of moisture contained in the air determine whether the weather is *fair*, *cloudy*, or *stormy*.

Weather and Climate. The conditions of temperature, moisture, and weight of the air existing at any one time, together with the winds, give us our *weather*, and the average weather conditions of any place make up its *climate*.

Soil Making by the Atmosphere. The atmosphere is necessary to us in many ways.

All animals breathe it, the land plants secure from it the greater part of their food, and it is the most important agent in changing solid rock into fine, productive soil. The moisture in the air helps to rust or decay the rocks, just as it *weathers* an unpainted house. Water freezing

in the rocks in winter, or very sudden changes in the temperature of rocks, cause them to break apart and become smaller. Anything that loosens the rock particles and helps the moisture in the air to penetrate into the earth, aids in the formation of soils. (See Fig. 72.) The loosened weaker portions of the rocks fall from their own weight and accumulate on the more gentle slopes. The strong portions of the rocks do not weather so rapidly and often stand up in fantastic columns or points. (See Figs. 71 and 72.)

In some parts of the world the rocks have decayed to a depth of hundreds of feet.

(See Fig. 73.) This decayed material forms the detritus which slowly creeps down hill because of its weight, and is carried away by rivers and other agencies which we shall study later. The finer surface portion of this detritus is mixed with more or less decaying vegetable matter from the trees and grasses, and forms what we know as *soil*.

Temperature of the Air. We measure the temperature of the air by means of a *thermometer*, or heat measurer. Most thermometers consist of a glass tube containing

a small quantity of mercury. At the temperature of freezing the mercury stands at a certain point which, in the thermometer we generally use, known as a Fahrenheit thermometer, we call 32 degrees. At the temperature of boiling water the mercury stands at 212 degrees. The glass tube be-



FIG. 73. A deep soil accumulation in North Carolina. Note the absence of boulders or ledges.

tween these limits is divided into 180 equal spaces, each of which is a degree, and we measure the temperature of the air at any time by noting the height of the mercury in degrees.

A temperature of 68 degrees is considered the most healthful temperature for our houses in winter. A temperature of between 90 and 100 degrees is that of a very hot summer day. Temperatures below 32 degrees are those of the colder part of winter, and a temperature of more than 32 degrees below the freezing point is said to be below zero. Such temperatures are very cold, but are

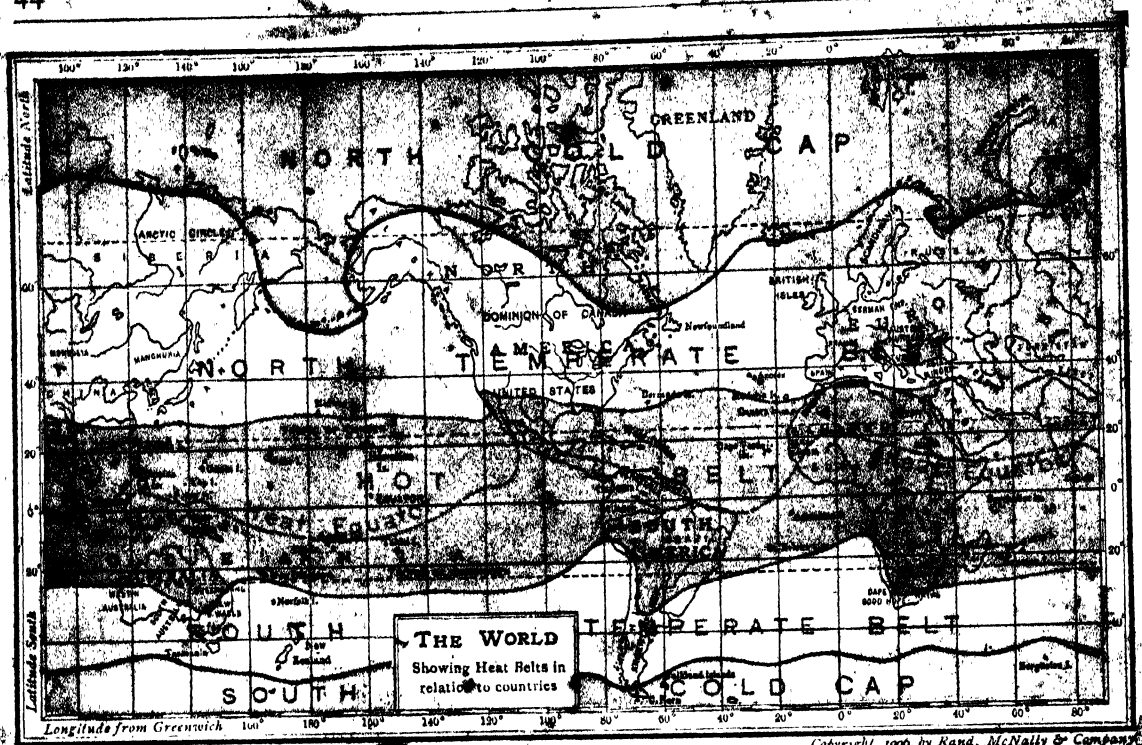


FIG. 74. A map of the world, showing the Heat Belts.

often experienced in a large part of our country during the coldest winter weather:

It is hotter in summer than at any other time. At that time the sun's rays strike the earth more nearly vertically, and are scattered over a smaller amount of surface. (See Fig. 75.) An area of a certain size gets more heat when the sun shines from high in the heavens and the shadows are shorter than when it shines obliquely.

The hottest part of the day is usually in the early afternoon and not exactly at noon, because the heat has been accumulating longer. For the same reason the hottest part of the summer in our country is in July and August instead of in June, when the sun rises highest in the heavens.

The Temperature of Land and Water. If the land and water were heated with equal

ease, and if they retained their heat equally well, the earth could be divided into five bands, separated from each other by the parallels of latitude which bound the zones of sunlight. But the land is warmed more rapidly than the water and cools off more rapidly. The warmth received by the ocean is carried to different parts of the world, as the ocean waters are constantly in motion in a series of ocean currents, but that received by the land is concentrated. Chiefly because of these facts the boundaries between the several belts of temperature do not coincide with the

tropics and circles, although they run in a general east-west direction. (See Fig. 74.)

The Heat Belts. Extending about the world on both sides of the equator is the broad band known as the *Hot Belt*, in which the average temperature of the year is more than 68

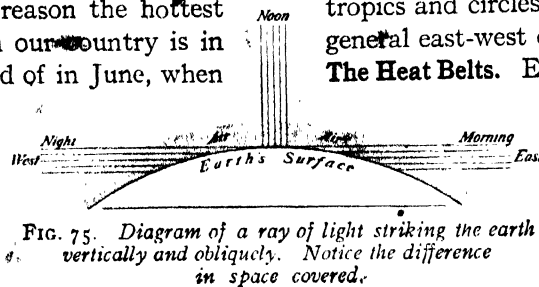


FIG. 75. Diagram of a ray of light striking the earth vertically and obliquely. Notice the difference in space covered.

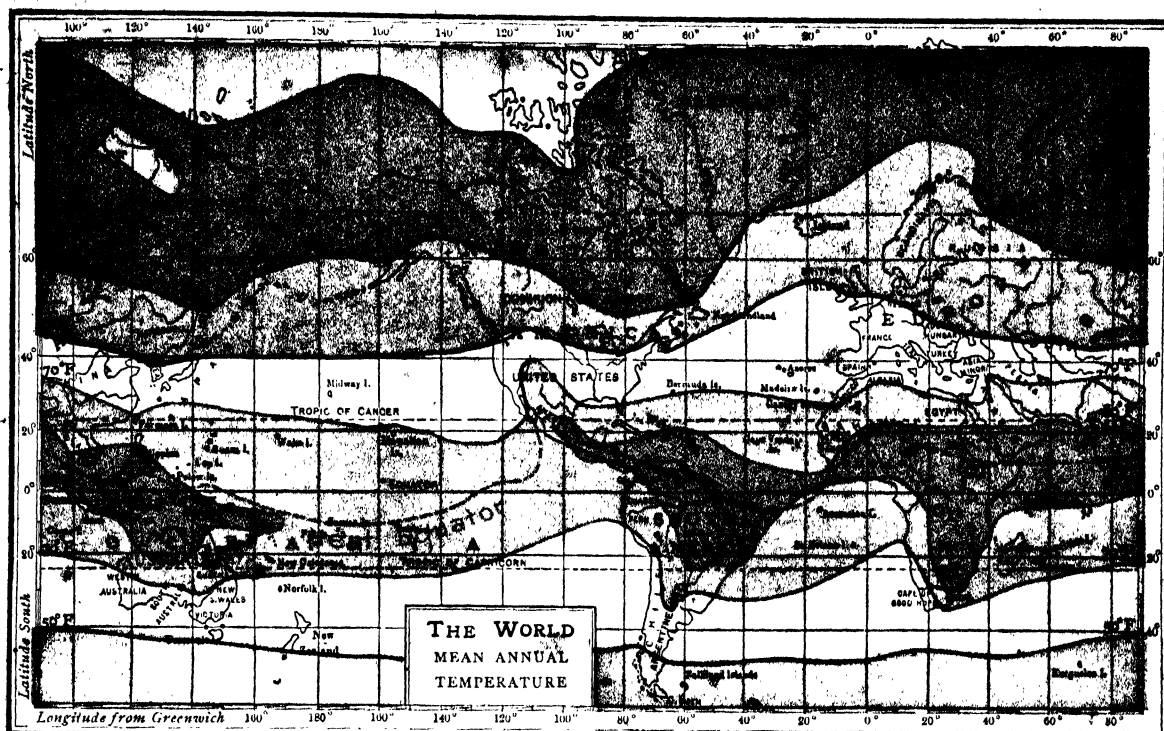


FIG. 76. A map of the world, showing the mean annual temperature.

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degrees. This belt extends farther poleward and is broader over the land than over the ocean, because the land is more readily warmed than the ocean. It extends farther into the Northern Hemisphere than into the Southern, because there is more land in the Northern Hemisphere. (See Figs. 74 and 77.)

About the poles are two areas known as the *North* and *South Cold Caps*, in which the average temperature of the warmest month of the year is never above 50 degrees. (See Fig. 74.) This is the average summer temperature required to ripen the

most hardy grains. The *South Cold Cap* extends much farther toward the equator than the *North Cold Cap*, because there is so much more land near the north pole than the south.

Between these limits are two areas known as the *North* and the *South Temperate Belts*. (See Fig. 74.) The *North Temperate Belt* contains far more land than the *South Temperate Belt*, is much broader, and includes the most

progressive countries of the world.

On each meridian there is some one place in the *Hot Belt* that has a higher average temperature than any point

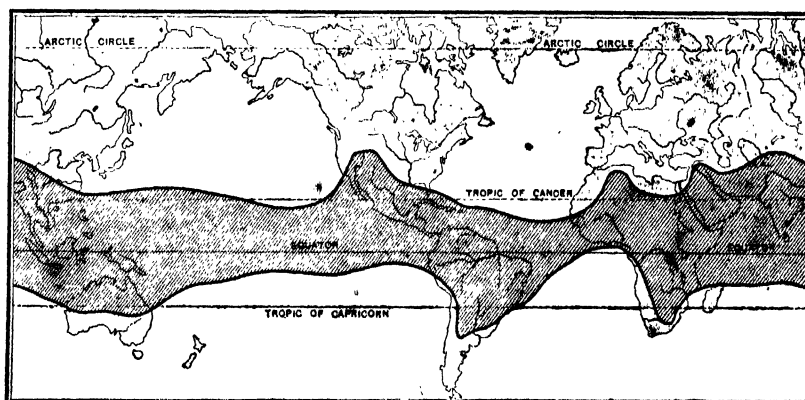


FIG. 77. Range of the Heat Equator.

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north or south. The line connecting these places is known as the *Heat Equator*. (See Fig. 76.) In our summer, when the sun shines more nearly vertically in the Northern Hemisphere, the Heat Equator is, of course, much farther north than in our winter. Its average position is shown on the map. (See Fig. 74.) We shall find that this Heat Equator is of great importance in helping to explain the various wind systems of the world.

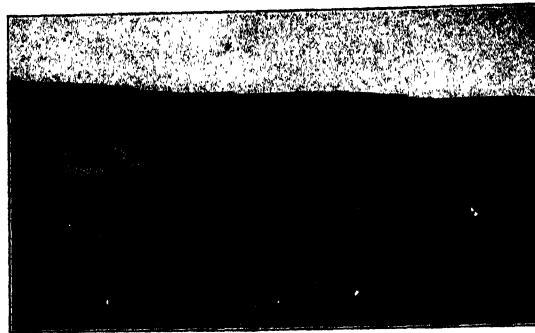


FIG. 78. A sand dune in New Mexico. It is slowly burying trees and shrubs.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What is the temperature of your school-room at this moment? What is the lowest temperature you have ever experienced? The highest? Describe the effects of cold and heat on you and on your surroundings.

(2) Keep a record of the outdoor temperature for one month, taking three readings daily. Find the average temperature for the month. Note the day in which there was the greatest range of temperature. (3) Keep a daily record of temperature for the month of January, and find the average for the month. Compare your results with the January isotherm for your region.

(4) Study the extent of the Hot Belt in the Eastern and Western Hemispheres. In which Hemisphere is it the wider? Why does it reach farther north in Eurasia than in North America? (5) Make a list of the countries of North and South America which are in the Hot Belt in July; in January. Underline those countries which are always in the Hot Belt. (6) Make a list of the countries of the world which are crossed by the Heat Equator in July. (7) Make a list of the progressive nations of the world in the North Temperate Belt.

(8) Break open a weathered pebble and compare the appearance of the inside with the outside. Explain what you see. Explain why it is often hard to decipher the inscriptions on ancient stone monuments.

(9) How do earthworms help in soil making? Find out why a farmer often plows his land in the autumn.

XII. *THE GREAT WIND SYSTEMS OF THE WORLD

Winds and Calms. Air moving horizontally is called a wind. When you hold up your

moistened finger and do not feel it colder on one side than on the other there is no wind. The air is then either quiet, or rising or falling, and we have what we call a *calm*. Winds are produced by differences in the weight of the air in different places. It is the force of the mov-

ing air that turns mills, speeds sailing vessels, and bends trees in a storm. It is the wind also that carries along the sand on a beach or desert and piles it in great hills known as *sand dunes*. (See Fig. 78.)

The Barometer and Its Use. The weight of the air is determined by an instrument known as a weight measurer, or *barometer*. The best barometers are made of a U-shaped tube of glass with one side of the "U" nearly a yard long and closed at the upper end. The other side is only a few inches long and is open at the end so that the air can readily reach the liquid. (See Fig. 79.) The tube is filled with mercury and then placed in a vertical position. The mercury will fall from the top of the long arm until at the seashore over a large part of the world there is a difference of thirty inches in the height of the mercury in the two arms of the U-shaped tube. As the air is the only thing pressing upon the liquid, it is clear that this is what holds up the mercury in the long column. If the weight of air decreases, it does not press so hard on the mercury in the short arm of the tube and therefore the mercury falls in

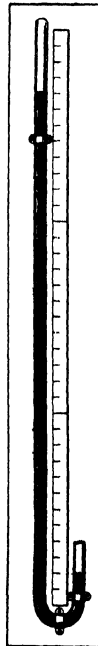


FIG. 79. A simple barometer

the long arm. By measuring the height of the column of mercury held up by the air which presses down on the mouth of the tube, we can ascertain the weight of the air.

As one ascends, the air is lighter and the mercury in the barometer consequently falls.

If the pressure at sea level is thirty inches, it will be twenty-nine inches at a height of 910 feet, twenty-eight inches at 1,850 feet, twenty-seven inches at 2,820 feet, and twenty inches at 10,550 feet, which last height is about that of the city of Leadville, Colorado. It is by noting the pressure of the air at different heights, and by comparing this pressure with that at the seashore at the same time, that we can most readily measure the height or altitude of elevations above the level of the sea.

The Trade Winds. By observing that in a room the warm air rises to the ceiling, while the colder air is near the floor, we learn that cold air is heavier than warm air. The coldest parts of the world generally have heavier air than the warmest. (See Figs. 80 and 83.) Over those portions of the earth just north and south of the Heat Equator the cooler, heavier air is continually moving toward the lighter belt near the Heat Equator, forming the great system of winds known as the *Trade Winds*. (See Fig. 81.) These trade winds are the most constant winds of the world, and are so named

because they blow regularly along a definite path.

As the air approaches the Heat Equator it rapidly becomes warmer and is therefore better able to absorb moisture. Hence the trade-wind area, especially over the oceans,

is a great *fair weather* belt. The sky and sea are beautifully blue, few clouds are seen, and the brisk moving air is invigorating. Where the trade winds blow over the land far from any ocean, they

can take up more water than the land will furnish. Thus such regions are deserts with very little rainfall and almost continually clear blue sky. The best illustration of a trade-wind desert is the Sahara in northern Africa.

We should expect the trade winds to blow due north or south, but as the earth

is continually rotating from west to east the winds are deflected from a straight north-south course. All winds moving over the surface of the world are turned to the right of their course in the Northern Hemisphere and to the left in the Southern Hemisphere. Therefore the trade winds blow from the northeast in the Northern Hemisphere and from the southeast in the Southern Hemisphere.

Doldrums. At the Heat Equator the warm, light air rises, and at a great height flows off toward the polar regions of the world.

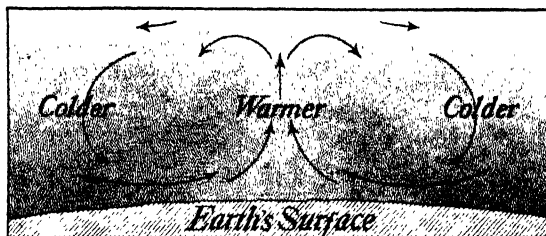


FIG. 80. Over the cool regions of the earth the air descends and moves toward the warmer regions, where it rises.

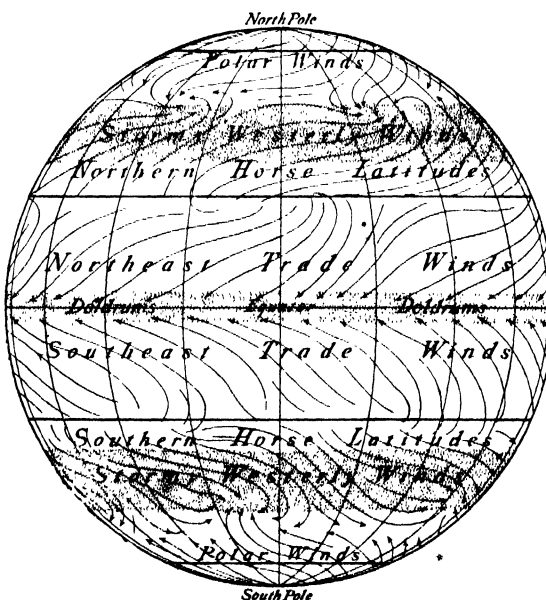
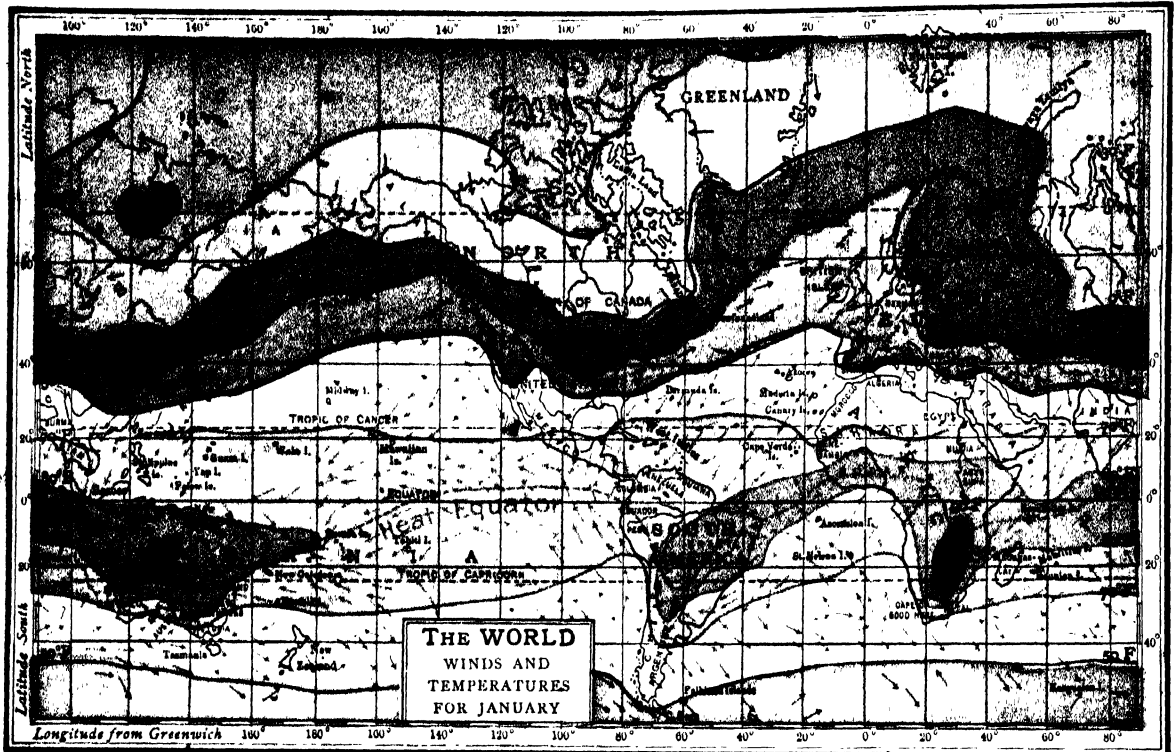


FIG. 81. The wind systems of the world.



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FIG. 82. Winds and temperatures of the world for January

Immediately bordering the Heat Equator, therefore, is a region where the air is slowly ascending, and where at the surface we have an area of calms known as the *Doldrums*. (See Fig. 81.) Years ago, when the larger part of our commerce was carried on by sailing vessels, the doldrum belt was the source of much annoyance to sailors, because they might have to wait for weeks for enough wind to carry them across into the (trade-wind area on the other side. The *doldrum* belt is strikingly contrasted with the trade-wind region because it is an area of excessive rainfall and

little fair weather. The air in the *doldrums* is always warm, moist, and depressing, much like a very uncomfortable summer day in the eastern United States.

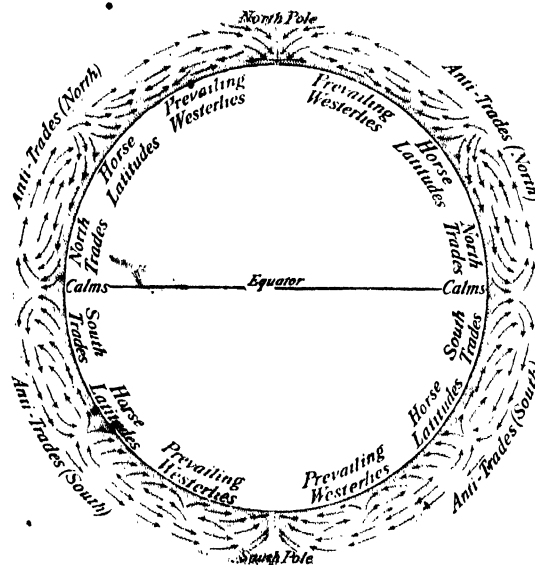


FIG. 83. Diagram of the earth showing the general movements of the atmosphere.

Monsoons. As the Heat Equator during a large part of the year is in the Northern Hemisphere, the southern trade winds must then blow across the equator into the Northern Hemisphere to reach the doldrum belt. These southeast winds are turned to the right when they cross the equator into the Northern Hemisphere and become *southwest* winds. In the same way winds that have to blow into

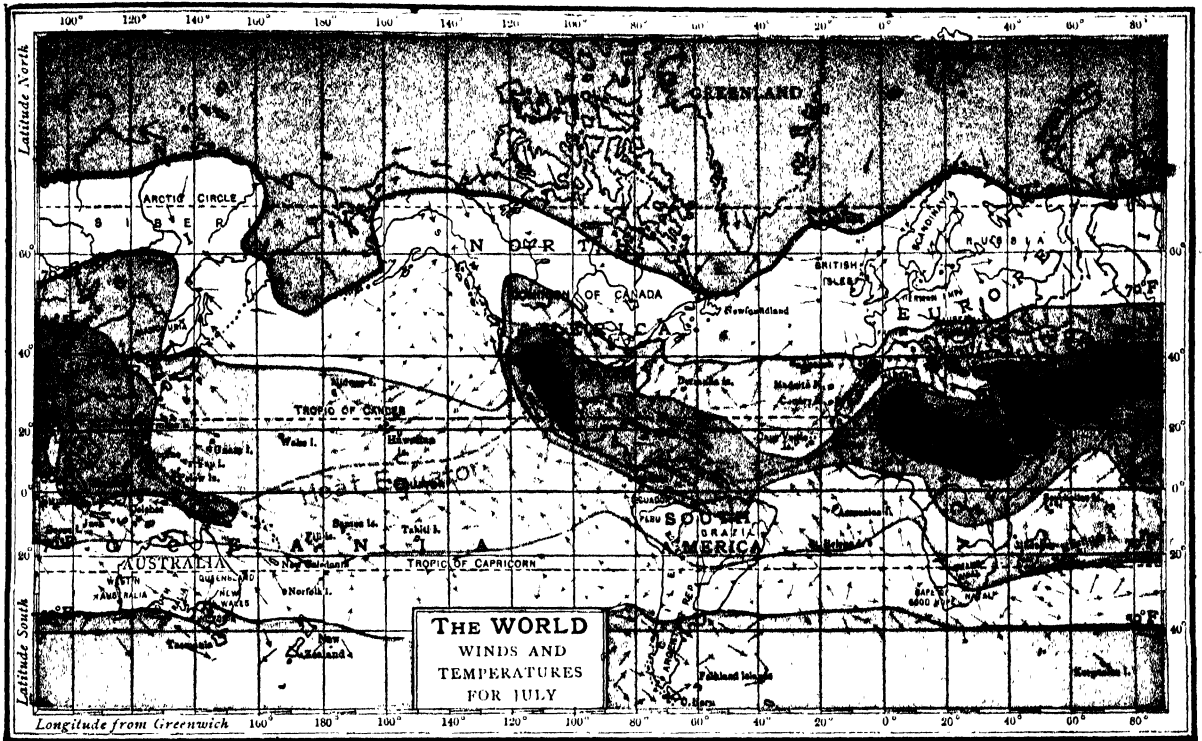


FIG. 84. Winds and temperatures of the world for July.

the Southern Hemisphere, when the Heat Equator is in this hemisphere, are turned from a northeast direction into a northwest direction when they cross the equator. There are, therefore, certain areas in the world which receive their winter winds from one direction and their summer winds from the opposite direction. These winds which change with the season are known as *Monsoons*. The best developed monsoon winds are found in India and along the southeastern coast of Asia.

Horse Latitudes and Westerlies. At about one-third the distance from the equator to each pole there is a belt where the weight of the air is on an average somewhat greater than at the equator. Over these belts the air is descending to take the place of the surface air flowing toward the equator and toward the poles. The result at the surface is a series of calms known as the *Horse Latitudes*. (See Fig. 83.)

These horse latitudes are boundaries, not

only of the trade winds, but of the great series of winds known as the *Stormy*, or *Prevailing Westerly Winds*. (See Fig. 83.) The westerly winds circle round and round the world, blowing from the west-southwest in our hemisphere, and from the west-northwest in the Southern Hemisphere. They exist throughout the larger part of the temperate belts, and so blow over the regions occupied by the chief nations of the world. These winds are interrupted by frequent storms, during which the wind may blow from almost any direction. The prevailing direction, however, is from some point in the west.

In the Southern Hemisphere these winds are strong and constant, as the air moves mostly over the ocean, and is not turned from its course by the land. Here they are known as the *Brave West Winds*, because of their strength, or the *Roaring Forties*, from the latitudes in which they are best developed. Sailing vessels between England and Australia

are borne eastward by these winds and find it easier to be carried on by them around South America and back to England than to try to face them in a return voyage around Africa.

Polar Winds. The other important winds of the world are the *Polar Winds*. These originate in the polar regions and blow from the northeast in our hemisphere and from the southeast in the Southern Hemisphere. Little is known concerning them.

Summer and Winter Winds. The areas of the world over which the great wind systems blow are not the same in the summer as in the winter, because the weight of the air is differently distributed in the two seasons, owing to the differences in the distribution of temperature. (See Figs. 82, 84, and 85.) These winds are much more constant over the ocean than over the land, because the lands are so much colder at one season and warmer at the other than the adjoining ocean, and also because the lands are crossed by mountain ranges and high plateaus which turn the winds from their course.

In the region of the stormy westerly winds the continents are much colder in winter than the oceans, especially in the Northern Hemisphere, and warmer than the oceans in summer. Therefore, along the eastern coast of the United States, for instance, the cold winds blow from the continent in the winter and toward the continent in the summer, always blowing from the area of colder, heavier air to that of warmer, lighter air.

Sea Breezes and Mountain Winds. At certain seasons of the year in regions bordering a large body of water the winds may

change twice a day. In the daytime, when the water is cooler than the land, the wind blows from the water to the land, forming a *sea breeze*. (See Fig. 86.) At night, when the land is colder than the water, the wind blows in the opposite direction, forming a *land breeze*. (See Fig. 87.) At the time when the wind is changing from one direction to another there is, of course, a calm.

In those parts of the world where there are high plateaus or mountains, the wind, as a rule, changes its direction twice daily.

At night the wind blows down the mountain valleys into the lower land, beginning first as a gentle breeze, and gradually developing into a strong wind, known as a *mountain wind*. In the daytime the warmer air of the valleys moves up the mountain slopes in the opposite direction, forming a *valley wind*. This change of direction is so constant in the summer in some of our western mountains that a hunter sleeping near a camp fire will often go to sleep up the valley from the fire to

escape the smoke, so certain is he that before morning the wind will blow from that direction.

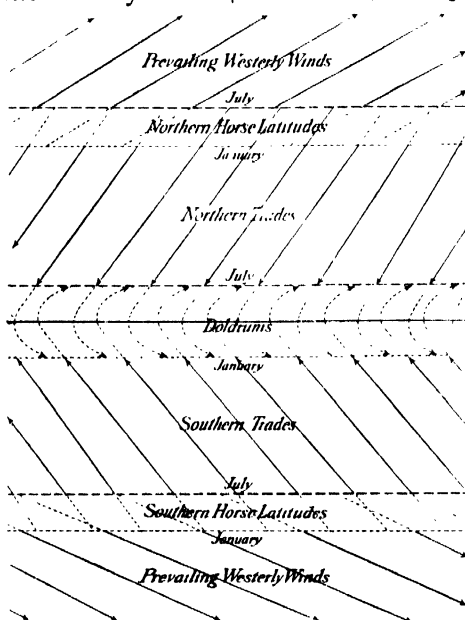


Fig. 85. Diagram showing how the wind systems of the earth move north and south between summer and winter.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Open the window in your schoolroom, or in some room at home, six inches at the top and six inches at the bottom. Hold strips of thin paper at the top and bottom and notice which way the paper moves. Make a drawing showing the movement of the air in the room. How is a similar movement illustrated by a fire in a grate? Draw arrows showing the indraught of cooler air and the upward movement of heated air. Show by a drawing how the movement of air in a fireplace is like that in the doldrum belt.

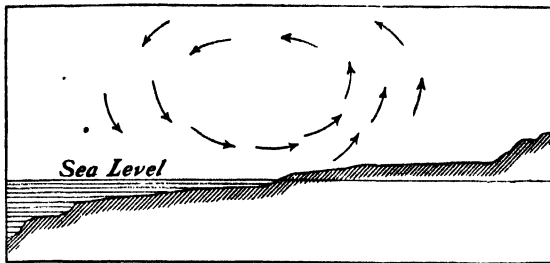


FIG. 86. Diagram of a sea breeze.

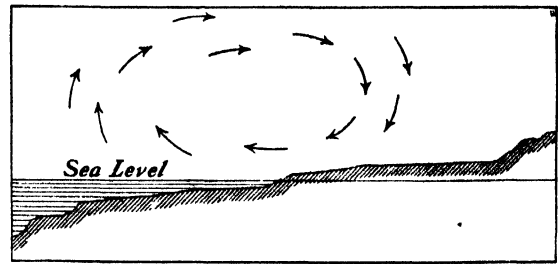


FIG. 87. Diagram of a land breeze.

(2) On an outline map of our continent draw arrows showing the direction of the trade winds. On this map write the names of the countries blown over by the trade winds. Locate two cities in this belt. (3) On the map used in Exercise 2 draw arrows to show the direction of the stormy westerlies. Write the names of the countries in this wind belt. Locate two cities on the western and two on the eastern coast of our continent. (4) On an outline map of the world draw arrows showing the direction of the trade winds; the westerlies. Indicate the doldrums and the horse latitudes.

(5) Explain how a barometer measures the weight of the air. Relate something from your own experience that shows that air has weight. (6) Along with your temperature record keep a daily record of the air pressure and of the direction of the wind. Find out the prevailing direction of the wind for a month. (7) Explain why certain winds in the Southern Hemisphere are called the "roaring forties." Who was the first European mariner to drive his ship westward in the face of these winds? (8) In which hemisphere do the northeast trade winds blow over the greatest extent of land? The westerlies? (9) Make a list of the desert regions over which the trade winds blow.

(10) Which winds bring rainy weather to your home? Clear weather? Give the reason in each case. (11) Write a composition on what you have noticed about sea breezes. Tell what time of day the breeze sprang up, its effect on the water, and on you; when it died down; its effect on sailboats; any experience you may have had which was connected with such a breeze.

(12) If you live inland, why does not the barometer ordinarily stand at thirty inches?

XIII. RAINFALL AND ITS DISTRIBUTION; STORMS

Moisture in the Air; Deserts. Everywhere in the world the air contains some moisture. Warm air can hold more moisture than cold air, and warm air if chilled will lose a certain amount of its moisture. Thus, we often see moisture condense in drops on the cold window pane of the laundry or the railroad car.

Days in which the amount of moisture in the air is small in proportion to what it might hold at that same temperature are dry days. On such days drumheads are tight, postage stamps do not stick together, and hair will crackle as it is combed. When the air is full of moisture, even though we cannot see it in drops, the days are damp. On such days one perspires freely and feels uncomfortable.

In certain parts of the world it is always dry, and there is so little moisture in the air that it rarely rains. Such regions we know as *deserts*. (See Fig. 97.) In other parts of the world the air is always moist, and whenever it is cooled some of the moisture condenses as fog, or dew, or rain.

The Causes of Rainfall. All of the moisture that comes to the surface of the earth in the shape of fog, dew, snow, or rain is called its *rainfall*, and

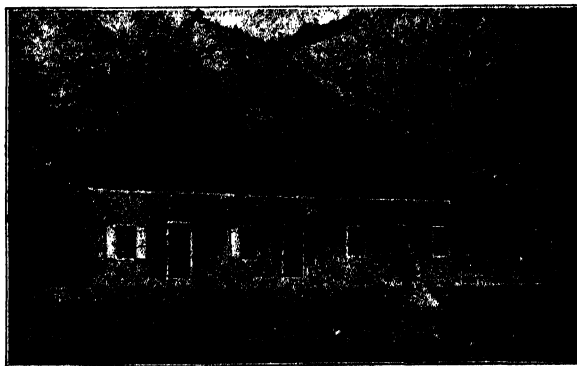
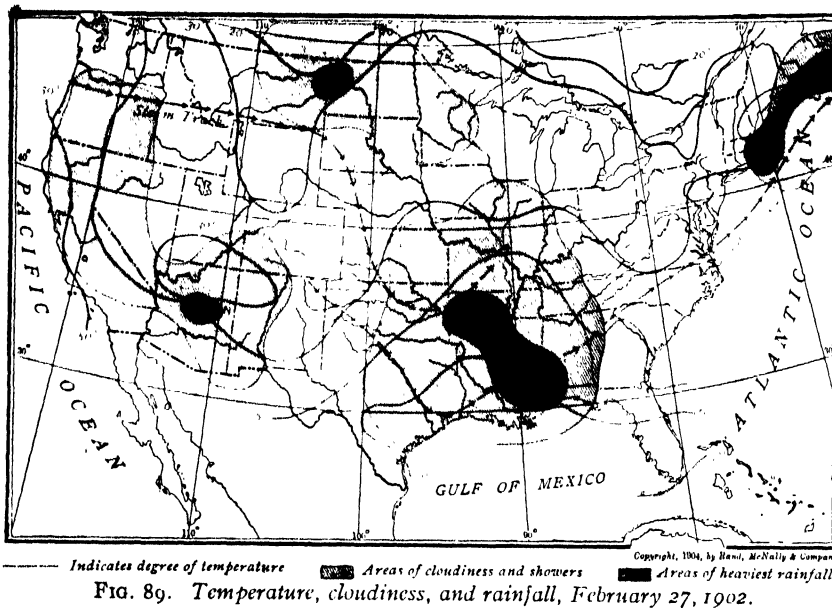


FIG. 88. A flat-roofed house in New Mexico. Owing to the small rainfall, peaked roofs are unnecessary.



anything that will cool the air so as to cause it to deposit its moisture will produce rainfall.

In the doldrum belt the warm, moisture-laden air brought by the trade winds is continually rising and cooling; hence in much of this region it rains daily. (See Fig. 97.) As the doldrum belt moves north and south, the regions over which it passes have a rainy season and then a dry season.

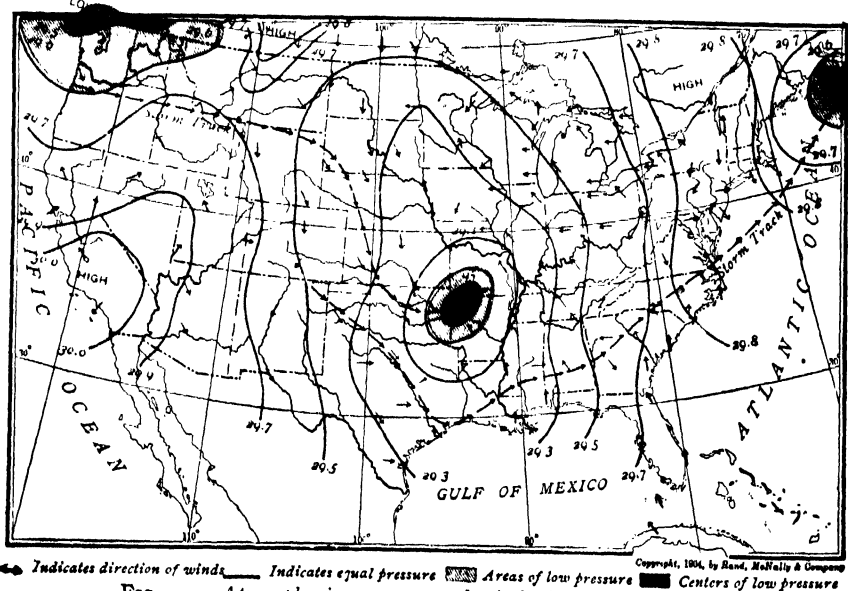
Whenever winds are obliged to move over mountains the air is cooled and rainfall usually follows. Trade winds thus produce rainfall on the coast of Brazil and eastern Australia, and the prevailing westerlies produce rainfall on the northwestern coast of America, in the northern British Isles, and in Norway. (See Fig. 97.)

Descending air grows warmer constantly, gaining one degree of tem-

perature for about every 300 feet of decrease in height. As it gains in temperature it becomes better able to absorb moisture. The air descending over the land cannot usually secure all the moisture it can hold, and is therefore dry. Thus the leeward side of mountain ranges is usually drier than the windward side, as in Australia and the western United States. (See Fig. 97.)

Storms or Cyclones.

Almost the whole of the United States, like other regions lying in the path of the prevailing westerly winds, has frequent storms. These storms are regions of light air, toward which the heavier air flows from all sides. Toward the center of a storm the barometer falls, because of the decreased weight of the air. Therefore, a storm center is known as a *low*. Such storms or *cyclones* move from west to east across



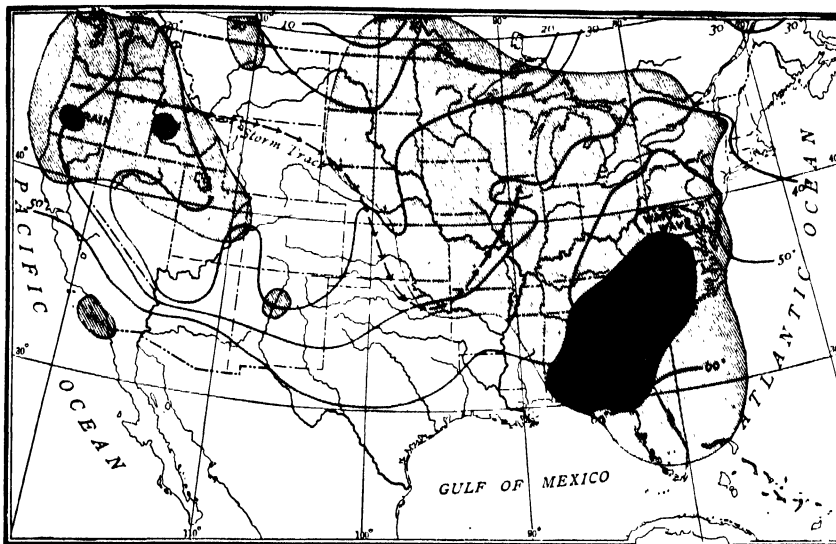


FIG. 91. Temperature, cloudiness, and rainfall, February 28, 1902.

the country, whirling as they go and often drawing the air in toward them for many hundreds of miles. (See Figs. 90, 92, and 96.)

Whenever a storm occurs, the air rushing in from all sides is drawn upward to high altitudes, circling around the center of the storm as water circles about the opening in the bottom of a basin as it flows out. If the air is drawn from over the ocean, it takes in a large amount of moisture which falls as rain when the air rises near the center of the storm. Thus those regions which have frequent storms, as do the areas of the prevailing westerly winds, have also frequent rains. In studying the distribution of rainfall over the world (see Figs. 89, 91, and 93) it should be remembered that snow is considered as rainfall, and that it is measured as rain because we know how much

water will be formed by the melting of a given mass of snow. The rainiest region of the world is in India, where the warm, moist air of the southwest monsoon, as it rises, is cooled on the sides of the mountains. The rainfall here is often as much in a day as the northeastern United States gets in a year.

Storm Winds. In the beginning of a storm in the eastern United States the wind usually blows from the north-

east or southeast, increasing in intensity as the storm center comes nearer to us. As the storm center passes and the clouds break away, the wind changes into some quarter of the west.

In winter the fair-weather winds are usually from the northwest. They are very cold and dry and may cause such sudden changes of temperature that we have a *cold*

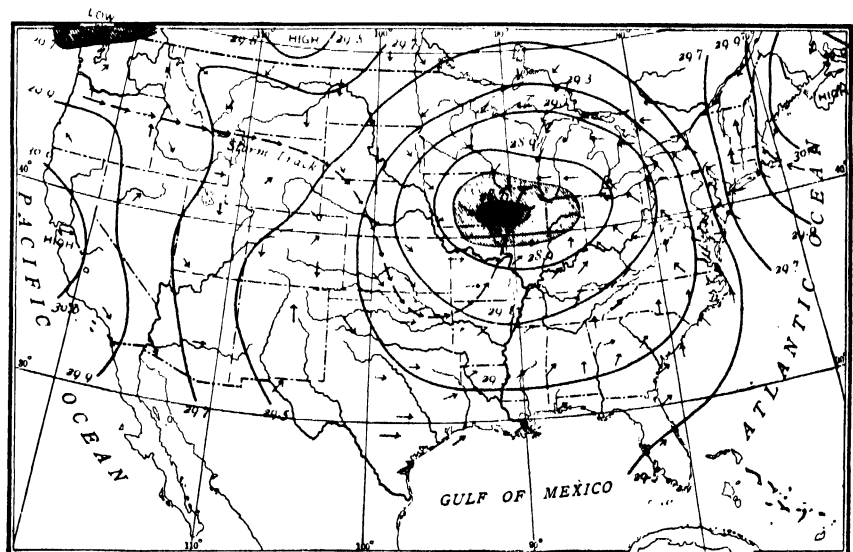
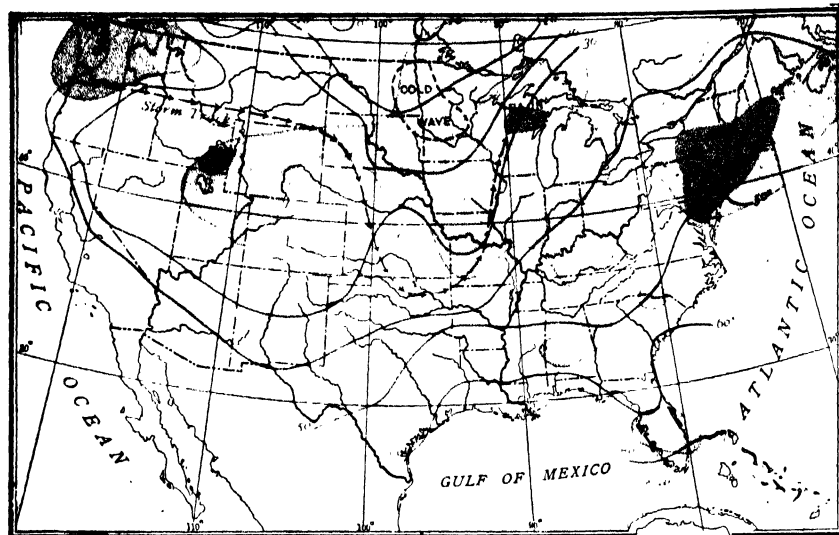


FIG. 92. Atmospheric pressure and winds, February 28, 1902.



Indicates degree of temperature Areas of cloudiness and showers Areas of heaviest rainfall
FIG. 93. Temperature, cloudiness, and rainfall, March 1, 1902.

wave. (See Fig. 94.) Such a northwest wind may blow for several days, the cold increasing and the barometer constantly rising. There may finally come a period of fair, calm weather. This shows that we are in an area of high pressure which follows the low pressure of the storm. (See Fig. 95.) It is then we have our coldest winter weather.

The oncoming of a storm, therefore, is usually marked by the falling of the barometer, due to the lightness and moisture of the air, and the oncoming of fair weather by the rising of the barometer, due to the dryness and heaviness of the air. The weight of the air changes much more rapidly in the

winter than in the summer, and so we have our strongest winds in the winter and, with few exceptions, our severest storms.

Tropical Storms. In the autumn months we sometimes have, along the eastern and southern coasts of the United States, very severe storms, much like our winter storms, except that they have developed in the tropics and moved north into our latitude. They occur

not only along our coast, but also along the southeastern coast of Asia, where they are called *typhoons*. These storms are known as *tropical cyclones*, to contrast them with the cyclones which originate in the belts of westerly winds. Except for the rains of the rainy season, these are the only storms in the trade-wind belt.

Tornadoes. In the central and eastern part of our country in the spring months we sometimes have local but very intense storms known as *tornadoes*. These usually occur on warm days when the surface air is very hot and full of moisture and when the overlying air is heavy and cold. Finally the warm

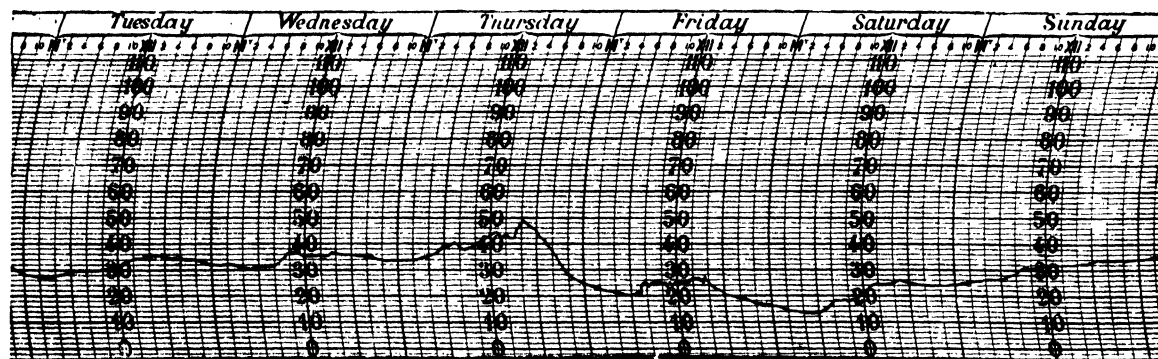


FIG. 94. Chart to show changes in temperature during the passage of a cyclone followed by a cold wave.

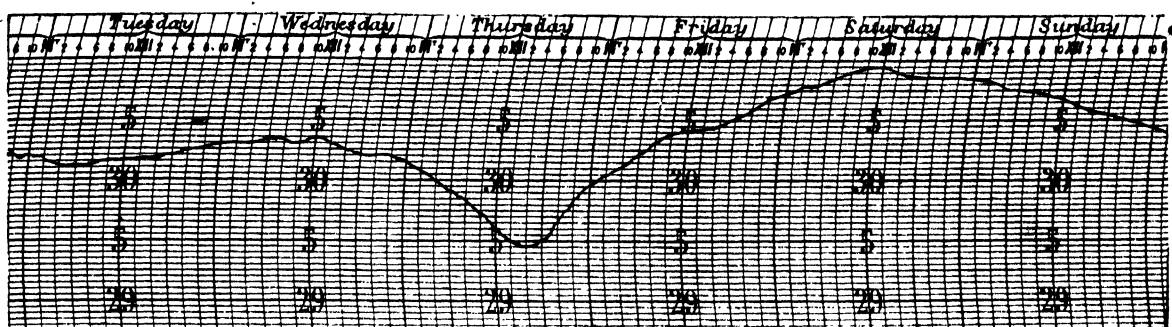


FIG. 95. Chart to show changes in atmospheric pressure during the passage of a cyclone followed by a cold wave.

air rises, the cold air falls, and a terrific whirling wind is developed, followed by heavy rainfall. A tornado often causes an enormous amount of damage.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Tell where you have seen moisture condensing. (2) Where was the moisture before it was condensed into drops? (3) What caused it to condense? (4) Make a list of all the forms of moisture that you are familiar with. Which form is the most common where you live? (5) Which wind most frequently brings this moisture?

(6) Explain why the trade-wind belt contains many deserts. (7) Make a list of the countries in some one continent which lie in the westerlies and which have a heavy rainfall. Opposite each country write one cause of such rainfall. Do the same for the trade winds. (8) Make a list of the countries in the westerlies which have a light rainfall.

(9) Why should there be daily rains in the doldrums? (10) At what time of day do these rains occur? (11) Why should portions of the trade wind belt have two rainy seasons? At what times of the year will these seasons occur? (12) Locate the two heaviest belts of rain in the United States. (13) Why are Nevada and Arizona largely desert regions?

(14) Draw a diagram showing the difference in rainfall between the windward and leeward sides of a mountain range. (15) What mountain range in the westerly-wind belt

might your diagram illustrate? In the trade-wind belt? (16) What difference in vegetation does this difference in rainfall produce? In industries? In the density of population?

(17) From which direction does the wind generally blow at your home when a storm begins? (18) From which direction does the wind come when the storm begins to clear? (19) From which direction does a storm generally come to you? (20) Toward what section of the country does it generally pass from you? (21) When a storm center is just west of the central Mississippi Valley, what would be the probable direction of the wind at Memphis? At Cincinnati? At Pittsburgh? At Atlanta? (22) What portion of the country would have rain? Clear weather?

(23) Compare the rainfall of Winnipeg and New Orleans and account for the difference. (24) How does the difference in the amount of rainfall in eastern and western Nebraska affect its industries? Its population?

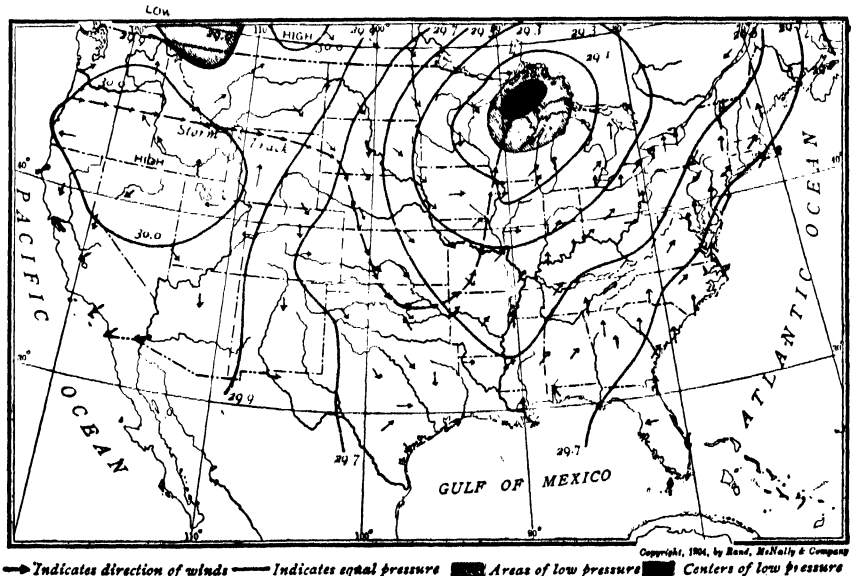
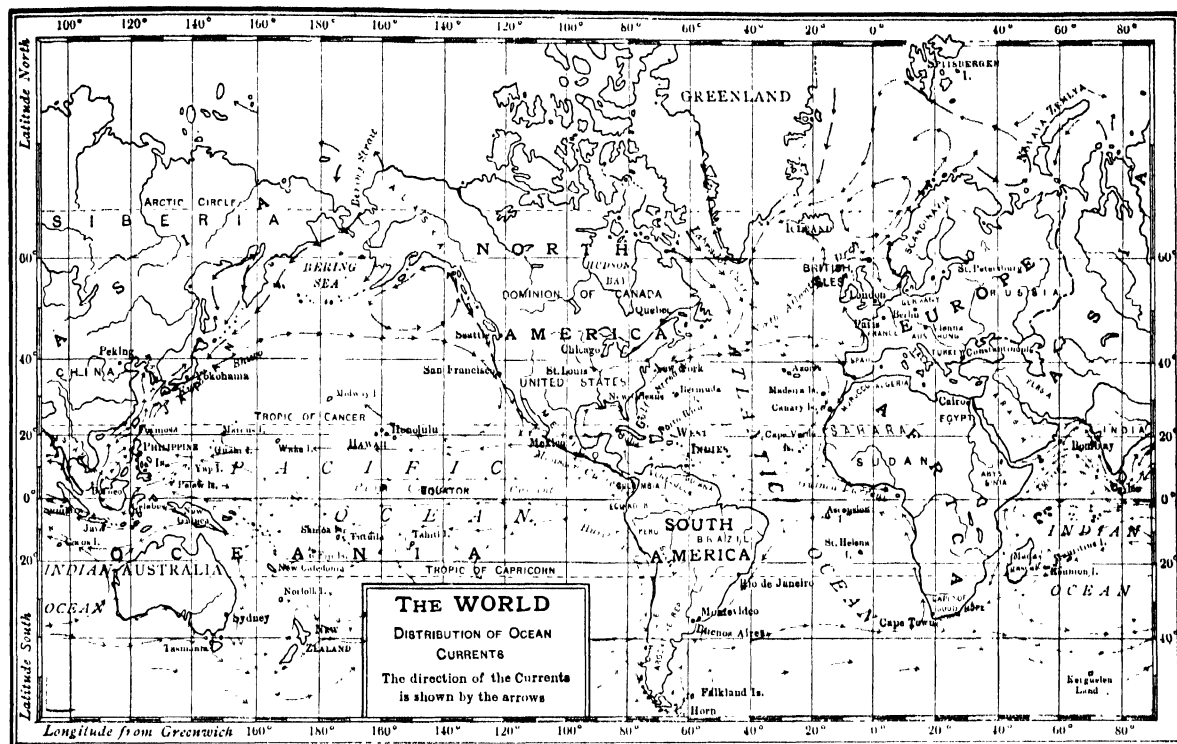


FIG. 96. Atmospheric pressure and winds, March 1, 1902.



Revised, 1909

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FIG. 98. A map of the world showing the ocean currents.

XIV. THE OCEANS

The Ocean Currents. The water of each ocean is continually circling about in its ocean basin, giving us a system of *ocean currents* or *eddies*. Bordering the equator, where the trade winds blow from the northeast or southeast, the waters of the ocean are blown toward the west until they are deflected by the continents. (See Fig. 98.) Turning then toward the poles, and being deflected, like the winds, to the right in the Northern Hemisphere and to the left in the Southern Hemisphere, they flow away from the equator until they move into the region of the westerly winds. They are then blown along to the eastward until they again strike the continents, when they turn again toward the equator. The currents in the northern oceans move from the east to the west along the equator, then to the north and again to the south, swinging round in the same direc-

tion as the hands of a watch. The direction of the southern currents is, of course, opposite to the direction of the hands of a watch.

The Great Eddies. These systems of currents are named from the ocean in which they occur, as the *North Atlantic Eddy*, the *South Atlantic Eddy*, the *North Pacific Eddy*, the *South Pacific Eddy*, and the *North and South Indian Eddies*. (See Fig. 98.) Around the south pole is the great eddy of the Antarctic Ocean, which is moving constantly eastward, in the same direction as the southern part of the eddies of the several oceans. In the center of each of the great eddies there is an area of quiet water with but little motion. The direction of the ocean currents is so much like that of the prevailing winds in the different regions that it is believed that the winds are the chief cause of the ocean currents.

Currents of the Indian Ocean. The best proof that the wind produces the ocean

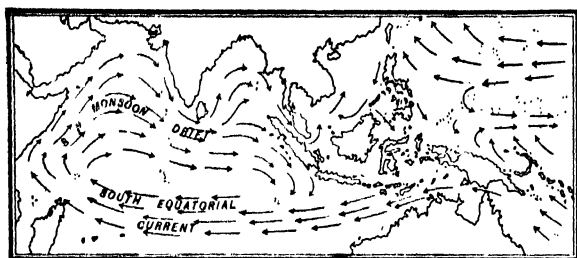


FIG. 99. The direction of the currents in the Indian Ocean in summer.

currents is the fact that in the northern Indian Ocean the currents change their direction in accordance with the direction of the monsoon winds. In the summer, when the southwest monsoon blows over this region, the currents move from west to east in the northern part of the ocean, and from east to west in the southern part. In the winter, when the northeast monsoon blows, the currents change their direction and move from east to west in the northern part of the ocean, and from west to east in the southern part. (See Figs. 99 and 101.)

Warm and Cold Currents. Certain portions of the system of ocean currents are particularly well known and have been definitely named. For instance, in the North Atlantic there is a stream of water issuing from the Gulf of Mexico known as the *Gulf Stream*. (See Fig. 98.) This stream of clear warm water unites with the western portion of the North Atlantic Eddy, called the *North Atlantic Drift*, because of the slow motion it has, and is not distinguished as a separate current north of Cape Hatteras. A similar current, known as the *Japan Current*, or *Kuro Shiwo*, extends from Japan part way across the Pacific Ocean. (See Fig. 98.) A cold current, known

as the *Labrador Current*, creeps down along the eastern coast of North America until it finally settles beneath the waters of the North Atlantic Drift off the coast of New England.

Importance of Ocean Currents. The system of ocean currents keeps the waters of the ocean constantly in motion, so that no part of it gets unduly warm. As the westerly winds move across the warm ocean in winter they are tempered by the warm water, and reach

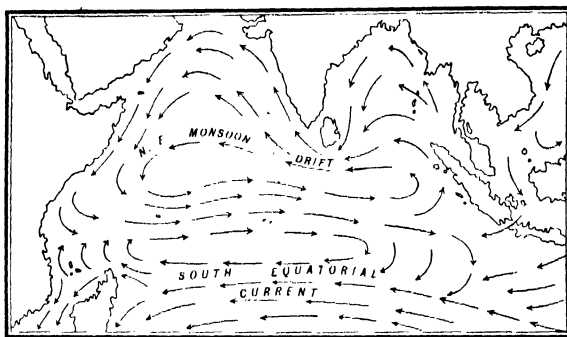


FIG. 101. The direction of the currents in the Indian Ocean in winter.

the continents to the east very much warmer than they were when they started across the ocean from the continents to the west. It is for this reason that the northwestern coasts of North America and Eurasia are so much warmer in winter than the northeastern coasts at the same distance from the equator.

The ocean currents are also important because they aid vessels going in the direction of their flow, and impede vessels going in the opposite direction. Columbus in his voyage to America had to sail against both the currents and the winds until he finally came into the trade winds which blew him along to the island of San Salvador. In a recent voyage across the Atlantic, in

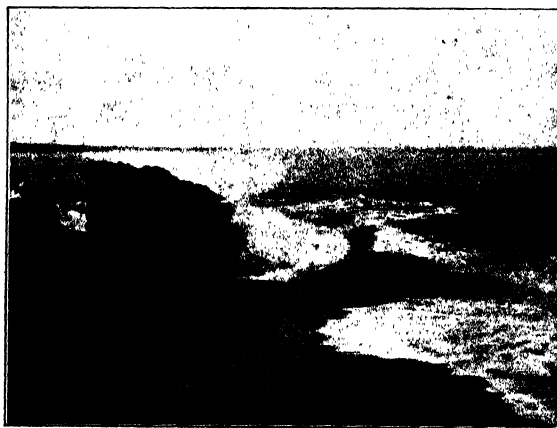


FIG. 100. Waves breaking on a boulder-strewn Californian shore.

a small boat, a bottle was thrown overboard. After floating for two years, it was cast ashore on the island of San Salvador almost at the foot of the monument which was built there to commemorate the discovery of the island by Columbus.



FIG. 102. A beach of sand and pebbles. Notice the wall built to protect the cliff from the action of the waves.

XV. WAVES AND TIDES

The Formation of Waves. The water of the ocean is not only in motion through this system of ocean currents, but it also has two other motions, known as *waves* and *tides*. Waves are

formed in any body of standing water, and even on broad, flowing rivers, whenever the wind blows. The wind blowing over the surface of the water causes it to rise and fall, forming crests and troughs which are known as *waves*. (See Fig. 100.)

The water itself moves forward very little, but the wave form travels through the water great distances. As the wave approaches the shore where the water is shallow, there is not enough water to form the broad, low wave of the deep sea, and the wave increases in height and decreases in breadth until finally the top portion falls with a blow on the shore, making breakers or *surf*. (See Fig. 100.)

Tides. Tides are periodic movements of the water that occur over the ocean, in estuaries, and in some lakes. The whole surface of the water rises and falls twice each day in most places, with an interval of twelve hours and

twenty-five minutes between high tides. The tides are really great waves, caused by the fact that the sun and the moon,

by the power of gravitation, draw the water upward until it is highest on the meridian

Questions and Exercises

(1) Fill out the following chart, using the globe in getting your answers:

The Atlantic Ocean is bounded	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(a) on the north by</div><div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(b) on the south by</div><div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(c) on the east by</div><div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(d) on the west by</div> </div>
The Pacific Ocean is bounded	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(a) on the north by</div><div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(b) on the south by</div><div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(c) on the east by</div><div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(d) on the west by</div> </div>
The Arctic Ocean is enclosed	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(a) by</div>

(2) On an outline map of the world show by

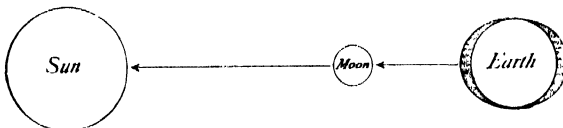


FIG. 103. Diagram showing the formation of tides at time of new moon.

arrows the eddies in the Atlantic, South Atlantic, North Pacific, and Indian oceans. (3) Which part of the North Atlantic Eddy carries warm water northward? Which part of the South Atlantic Eddy carries warm water southward? Which part of the South Atlantic Eddy carries cool water northward? Which part of the South Pacific Eddy carries cool water northward? (4) On the outline map used in Exercise 2, write the words "warm" and "cool" over the corresponding parts of the eddies.

(5) Why are the waters on the coast of Maine colder than those along Marthas Vineyard? Why do fogs prevail where the Labrador Current and North Atlantic Drift meet?

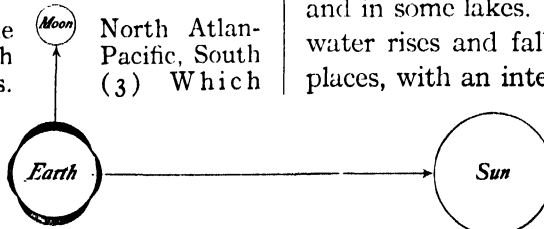


FIG. 104. Diagram showing formation of tides at a time halfway between new and full moon.



FIG. 105. Diagram showing formation of tides at full moon.

nearly under the moon, while another tidal wave is formed at the same time on the opposite side of the earth. (See Fig. 103.) The explanation of this opposite tide is too difficult to be given in this book. As the earth turns to the east and the moon is over a meridian farther and farther to the west, the tide follows as far as it can, first rising on the shore and then receding to form the next tide wave. When the water is rising we call it *flood tide*; when it is flowing seaward we call it *ebb tide*.

The Cause of Tides. At the time of the new moon, when both the sun and the moon are on the same side of the earth, they are drawing by the force of gravitation in the same line. (See Fig. 103.) At this time the tide is much higher than at those times in the month when the moon is drawing along one line and the sun along another. (See Fig. 104.) At full moon, when the sun is on one side of the earth and the moon on the other, there is also a very high tide. (See Fig. 105.) The tide wave, like a wind wave, moves more slowly as it approaches the shore. Hence the tide wave reaches the shore some hours after the moon has passed that meridian. Sailors need to know when high tide will

be, so as to take advantage of it for entering or leaving ports with shallow harbors.

High and Low Water; Tidal Bores. The difference between high and low water varies in amount in different places. In enclosed

seas like the Mediterranean and the Baltic there is practically no tide, while in others there is a change of several feet. The highest tides are found in funnel-shaped inlets like the Bay of Fundy, where they reach a height of more than fifty feet above low-water



FIG. 106. A small beach in California. The action of the water is slowly wearing away the rocky shore.

mark. On gently sloping shores the advancing or retreating tide may extend over a great breadth of surface—perhaps a mile or more. On steep shores very little land is exposed between high tide and low tide.

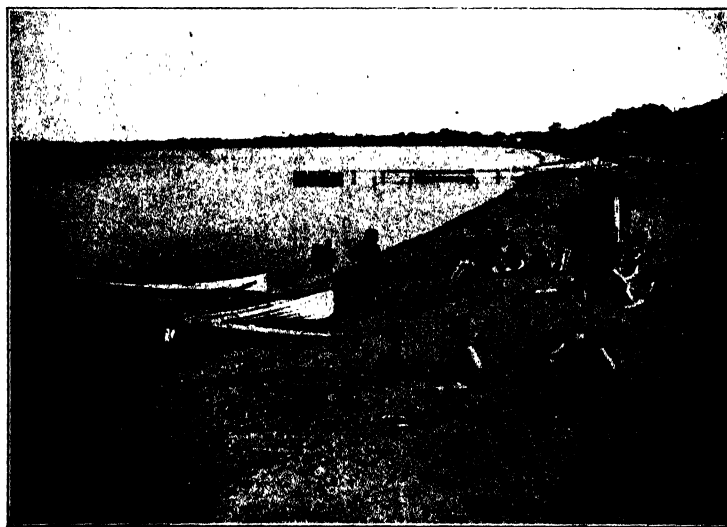


FIG. 107. A straight, regular, sandy beach, built along a gently sloping shore.

The tide rushing in and out of the mouths of estuaries prevents the sediment or detritus brought down by the rivers from accumulating there, and helps to keep harbors sufficiently deep for the use of large vessels. In some estuaries the tide advances in a

series of great waves so that the time between low and high water is only a few minutes. This phenomenon is known as a *tidal bore*, and is particularly well developed at the mouths of the Seine and the Yangtse-kiang rivers.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What kind of work is done by waves on a rocky shore? On a sandy shore? (2) Tell about the work of waves on a shore you have seen or about which you have read.

(3) Describe a shore at high tide; at low tide: draw a picture of each.

(4) How does the rise and fall of the tide affect the ways of the people living on the shore?

(5) Make a list of the large tidal estuaries on the east coast of the United States; on the east coast of South America; on the coast of France. Opposite each write the name of a town on that estuary.

(6) Would a tide run farther up the Mississippi River or the St. Lawrence? Why?

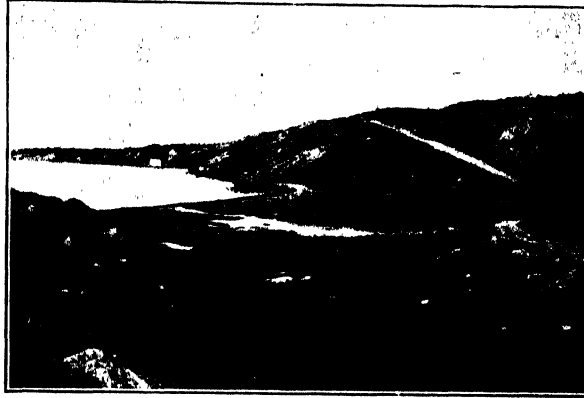


FIG. 108. A small beach in New Brunswick built up by the accumulated detritus. Note the lagoon behind it.

XVI. SHORE FORMS

The Deposits Made by Waves and Tides.

Waves and tides are constantly wearing away the land and moving the detritus produced

by their own work or brought to them by the rivers. In an indentation of the shore line or at the foot of a cliff we usually find accumulations of detritus called *beaches*. (See Figs. 102, 106, and 108.) If the beach is pebbly the pebbles are washed back and forth and banged together until they are worn into sand. The finer detri-

tus is carried into deep water and there deposited, while much of the coarser is swept along the shore and temporarily deposited. The detritus deposited offshore forms shallows in the ocean, or builds up the continental shelves off coasts where continental shelves

are found. It is over these shallows that fish are most abundant. The Grand Banks off Newfoundland, the great fishing ground for American vessels, is an excellent illustration of a shallow area on a continental shelf.

On gently sloping shores, where plains border the water, there is usually a beach which may be many miles in length. (See Fig. 107.) Sometimes on such coasts the waves break at a distance from the shore and an accumulation of detritus is built up, which, when it reaches the surface

of the water, forms a continuous offshore beach known as a *barrier beach*. Between the barrier beach and the shore line there is usually a *lagoon* of more or less quiet water into which a river flows. The barrier beach

is sometimes broken every few miles by a narrow channel which makes it possible for the lagoon to be used as a harbor.

The materials carried along shore are often built out into the quiet water behind points on the coast, as at the mouth of an estuary, forming a sandy projection of the beach known as a *spit*, if it is

built out straight, or a *hook*, if it is curved. Rivers may also form spits and hooks behind a point or behind islands. (See Fig. 109.)

Sea Caves and Promontories. Where the waves break with force at the foot of steep and rocky cliffs, they often wear away little



FIG. 109. A hook formed in a river.

caves, sometimes called *ovens*. When the cave is cut so deep that the overlying rock falls of its own weight, the cliff is worn back. Caves formed in this way are numerous along the coast of Maine.

The weak rocks bordering a body of water are worn away more rapidly than the strong rocks, and the latter often project as *headlands* or *promontories*. The end of such a promontory is usually called a *cape*. (See Fig. 111.) Capes are also sometimes built of sand where the waves and currents build a sand spit out into the waters.

The Work of Corals. In the warmer regions of the world, as about Florida, there are many islands and reefs built up under the water from the bodies of small animals known as *corals*. The coral animals build a strong skeleton from the food they secure from the ocean water. As they grow upward they die below, leaving the stony coral material as their foundation. They can grow only where the water is warm and continually in motion.

Some of these coral islands, especially in the Pacific Ocean, are more or less ring-shaped, with a quiet body of water or *lagoon* inside. Such a coral island is known as an *atoll*.

Ancient Shore Forms. Sometimes a great area of land once covered by water is exposed. This may be due to the raising of the land above its former level, or to the settling of the water because of evaporation or drainage. In such a case the land forms which have been made by the deposits from the waters, or by the cutting of the waves, are left as evidences of the former presence of the water. A knowledge of the land forms built by the waves, tides, and currents enables us to explain the



FIG. 111. The wave-cut shore of Cape Blanco, showing a headland and an island.

history of many regions once covered by water, but from which the water has now disappeared. These old forms are found in many parts of the world, but some of the best examples are about Great Salt Lake in Utah, where the old shores rise in places more than a thousand feet above the level of the lake, showing its former great extent.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Describe a pebbly beach you have seen.

Tell where it was, the size and shape of the pebbles; what wore them away; where the pebbles came from. (2) Draw a picture of a cliff you have seen that was being worn away. Tell where it was. Show, if you can, where the detritus from the cliff was being carried. (3) Make a list of the states in the United States that have barrier beaches. Name a city on such a beach. (4) What is a lagoon? Find one on the map of the United States.

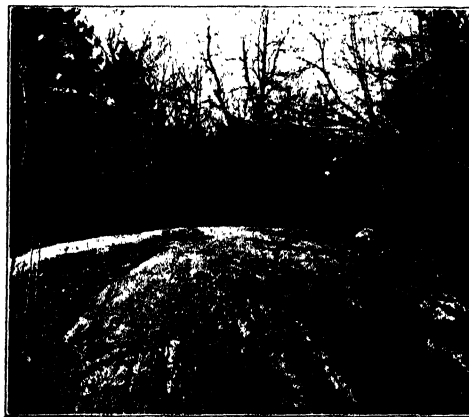


FIG. 110. A ledge, rounded and scratched by a glacier, in Bronx Park, New York City

XVII. GLACIERS

What a Glacier Is. A very long time ago the northern parts of North America and Europe were covered by a great mass of ice similar to that now found about the south pole and that covering most of Greenland. These great masses are known as *continental*

glaciers. The work they did in changing the shape of the land is well illustrated by the work now being done by the smaller glaciers occupying the upper portions of river valleys in parts of Switzerland, Alaska, northwestern United States, and certain other regions of the world. (See Figs. 115 and 116.)

The ice of the glaciers is formed by the accumulation of snow which, for many years, has been packed into a solid mass by its own weight, very much as a boy can pack soft, white snow into a hard, bluish snowball.

The Work of Glaciers. Glaciers are not stationary, but move slowly outwards over

of unsorted detritus of many kinds and of all sizes, from very fine powder or rock flour to boulders as large as a small house, were left, forming an irregular ridge known as a *terminal moraine*. (See Fig. 113.)

A great terminal moraine extends across North America from the island of Nantucket, through Marthas Vineyard and Long Island, across New York Bay, central New Jersey, and northern Pennsylvania, and thence irregularly westward and northwestward to the upper Missouri River. The whole country north of this line, except for a large area in Wisconsin, was once covered by a great glacier. As the ice melted back from this southern position, it left its deposits scattered over the country in the form of many small moraines. (See Fig. 180.)

Drumlins. In some places the glacier deposited long, rounded hills, in shape like half a football, which are known as *drumlins*. (See Fig. 112.) The outlines of these hills are very smooth, and they are usually free from trees. Drumlins are found in great numbers in Massachusetts, in central New York, and in a portion of Wisconsin. The waters made by the melting of the ice also deposited great quantities of sand in many parts of the country. This sand remains in the form of rounded hills or flat plains.

Lakes and Waterfalls Due to Glaciers. In the depressions of the moraines and sand

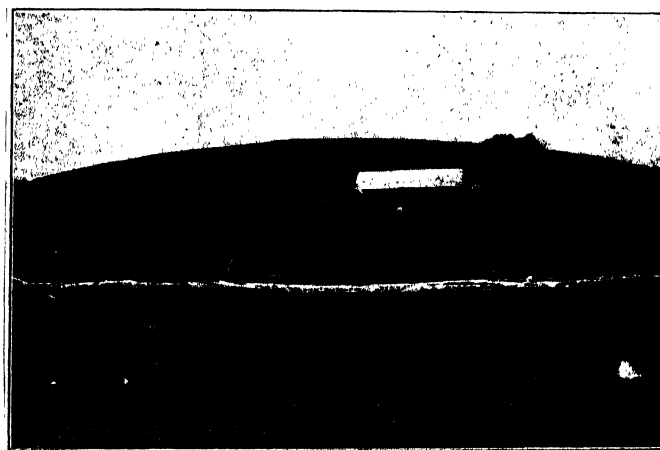


FIG. 112. A drumlin in Massachusetts. Notice the lack of trees and the half football shape.

the land, scraping and scratching as they go. Large rocks are picked up and bodily carried along; small rocks are rubbed together and ground to pieces; while the fragments in the bottom of the ice scrape over the land, leaving scratches in the rocks, which show the direction in which the ice moved. (See Fig. 110.) Regions that have been covered by glaciers have thus lost a large part of the soil that was once formed by the slow weathering of the rocks. The hilltops have been rounded, and the ice as it melted has left the deposits scattered irregularly over the land, particularly in the river valleys. (See Fig. 113.)

Moraines. Where the ice melted at one place for a considerable time, great masses

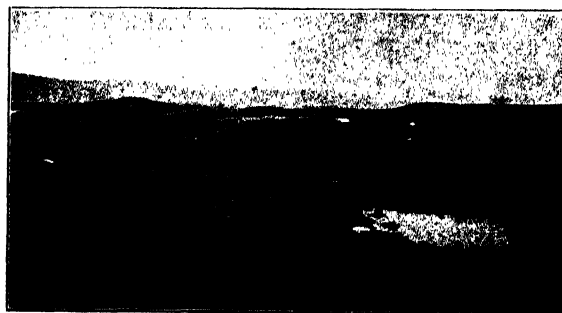


FIG. 113. A terminal moraine on Staten Island, with its rolling, irregular surface and rounded hills.

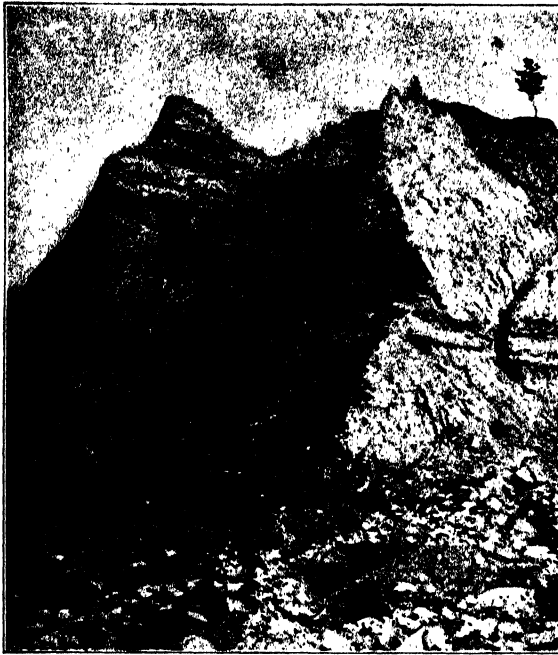


FIG. 114. A soil section of a drumlin showing character of detritus and effect of weathering.

accumulations, many lakes are now found. The river valleys were partly filled by glacial deposits, and when the rivers began to flow again along the lowest lines in the surface of the land, the water filled the many depressions amid the deposits and formed lakes which were later connected by streams. This is the reason for the occurrence of thousands of lakes within the glaciated areas of North America and Europe.

As the rivers flowed they began to deepen their channels, and in so doing in many places cut down to hard rocks lying below a thin accumulation of glacial deposit. At such points *waterfalls* were formed. The waterfalls that have been of such great importance to New England and New York for manufacturing purposes are nearly all the result of the work of glaciers. The value of the waterfalls in the glaciated area

of the eastern United States is much increased by the fact that glacial soils readily hold water, so that the streams are not subject to drought during the season of least rainfall.

Soil Formed by Glaciers. The detritus left by the glaciers, as it weathers, forms very rich soil, because it is made up of so many kinds of rock. (See Fig. 114.) In New England, where the glacier moved over very strong rock, thus producing great numbers of boulders, the surface in many places is still so covered with these loose rocks that it can be tilled only with great difficulty. In the central western states, as, for example in Ohio, the glacial detritus contains but few boulders, and is spread so evenly that the surface is a gently sloping plain which can be easily tilled.

Valley Glaciers. *Valley glaciers*, like those of Switzerland and Alaska, also carry deposits scattered along their sides and deposit them in the form of *lateral moraines*. (See Fig. 115.) These glaciers often carry many streaks of glacial deposit down the center of the ice, showing where the lateral moraines of two streams of ice came together. These united lateral moraines are known as *medial moraines*. (See Fig. 116.)



FIG. 115. A valley glacier in Washington. The lateral moraine deposits are on each side.



FIG. 116. A valley glacier in Switzerland. The medial moraine is shown at the junction of the two glaciers.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Which of the pictures in this chapter shows that the rock has been scraped and scratched by a glacier? (2) Compare a glacier with a river. (3) Where does a glacier deposit detritus? (4) What is a terminal moraine? (5) Trace the terminal moraine of the United States. Name towns north of this moraine in whose vicinity you might expect to find glacial boulders, heaps of detritus, scratched rocks, and rounded hilltops.

(6) Make a list of the states which contain glacial lakes. Locate the largest and most important of these lakes and tell some of their uses. (7) Why should New England and New York be such important manufacturing regions? (8) Find out the names of several leading manufacturing towns in the glaciated area and tell why factories should be located there. (9) Why should Ohio be better fitted for farming than New England?

(10) To what parts of Europe and North America would you go to see a valley glacier? (11) What rivers of Europe are fed by melting glaciers? (12) Which of these rivers flow through lakes? (13) Where in Europe would you look for a terminal moraine? A medial moraine?

(14) Where do Alpine rivers deposit much of the detritus they have brought from the foot of the glaciers? (15) What plain has been built up of such material? (16) Why should such a plain be fertile? (17) Why would you expect such a plain to have a dense population?

(18) Describe the surface of a terminal moraine. (19) Why should stone fences be common in New England? (20) Why are more farms found in the valleys of New England than on the higher lands? (21) Why are drumlins often known locally as "long hills"?

XVIII. DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS

Where Plants Grow. The land on which we dwell, the water of the ocean, rivers, and lakes, and even the air, furnish homes for enormous numbers of different kinds of plants. Many of these plants are of great importance, as they furnish us the materials for food, clothing, and shelter, or because they serve as food for animals.

Land plants thrive best where the soil, temperature, and moisture are best suited to furnishing them the food necessary for their growth. The character of the climate determines the length of the growing season; and the length of the growing season determines the distribution of the various species of plants over the world; for some plants grow in a few weeks, while others require many months. We therefore find plants varying widely in their character from the polar regions toward the Hot Belt. Plants grow most luxuriantly where the soil is fine and rich, as it is in the great alluvial plains of our

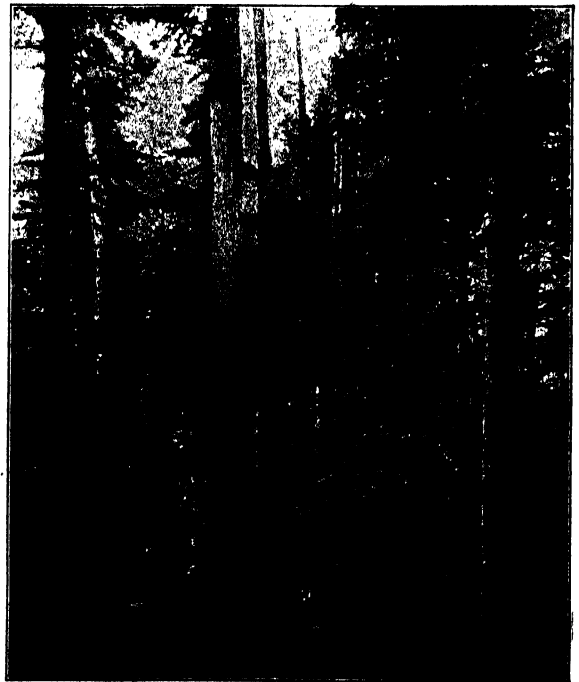


FIG. 117. A dense forest growth in Washington.

largest rivers, and where the moisture is abundant.

Vegetation Regions. We may distinguish three great kinds of vegetation regions: *Forests*, in which the trees grow high above the grasses and shrubs and other forms of plant life (see Fig. 117); *grasslands*, where trees are practically absent, except perhaps along the rivers, but where grass abounds (see Fig. 118), and *deserts*, in which plant life is very scarce, except the prickly forms like our cacti (see Fig. 126).

The most luxuriant forests are the tropical forests found in the Hot Belt. Between the Hot Belt and the Temperate Belt, where the rainy season comes only once a year, we find much open grassland, known as *savannas*. (See Fig. 119.) The well-watered portions of the temperate region have extensive forests, the drier parts are deserts, while between the desert and the forest areas are the temperate grasslands, or *steppes*. (See Fig. 119.) In the North Cold Cap, where the growing season is short, there is an extensive boggy area known as the *tundra*, in which grasses and mosses grow in abundance. (See Fig. 119.) The coldest polar regions consist of barren, icy deserts where few plants grow.

Vegetation and Altitude. As the climate changes in ascending a mountain or a high plateau, so the vegetation changes at various altitudes, even in the Hot Belt. We may find the plants of several different vegetation regions on any high mountain, while the top of the mountain may be snow-capped and an

ice desert the year round. Thus mountains may form little plant islands, banded from foot to summit with widely different forms of vegetation, and rising in the midst of a great region whose vegetation is all like that found at the base of the mountain.

Vegetation and Slopes. Winds are the great carriers of moisture, and since it is moisture that determines the difference between a desert, a grassland, and a forest, anything that causes the winds to lose their moisture greatly affects vegetation. The distribution of mountains as related to wind systems is, therefore, very important. The

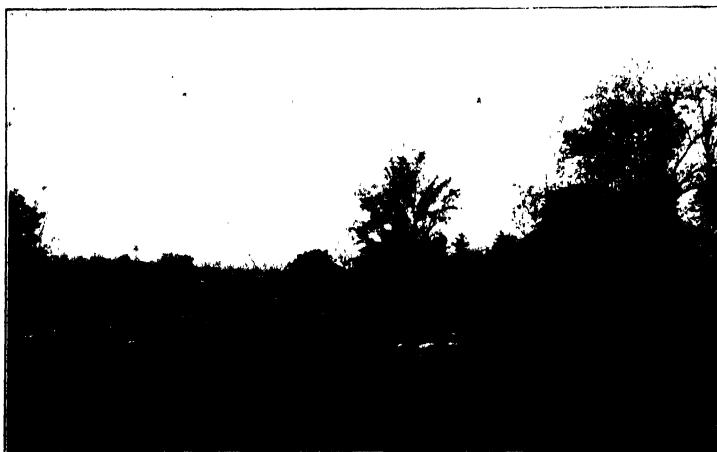


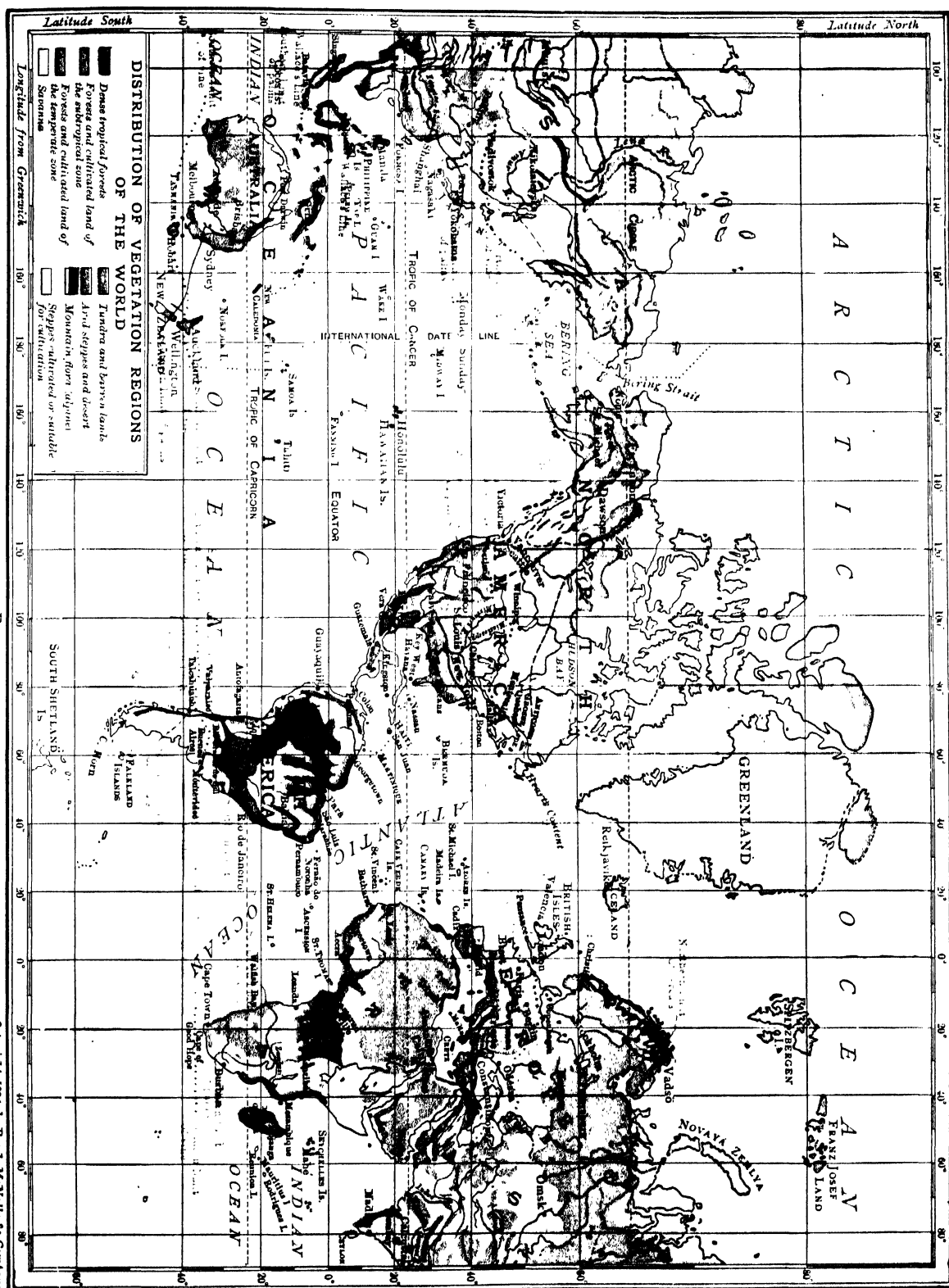
FIG. 118. A temperate grassland with scattered groups of trees.

windward side of mountain ranges receiving the moisture-laden breezes from the oceans is usually forested. The leeward side, being dry, may be as barren as a desert. Lowlands, with their gentle slopes, usually contain

great numbers of lakes, bogs, or swamps if situated in the moist regions of the world.

In a hill country the gentler slopes are usually devoted to crops and grass fields, while the steeper slopes are given over to forests and to grass for the pasturage of cattle. Steep slopes do not hold soil as easily as gentle slopes. Crops planted on hillsides are therefore liable to be washed out during a heavy rain. It is best to have hillsides devoted to vegetation that covers the ground closely like grass or trees. Thus we see that the form of the land has an important effect upon the distribution of vegetation.

Tropical Forests. The tropical forests are the regions of the densest vegetation in the



world. As they lie near the Heat Equator with its almost daily rains, they have abundant moisture. The warmth is great and the sunshine ample, for the sun shines nearly twelve hours every day in the year. The conditions are so favorable that the vegetation is almost inconceivably dense, producing what are known as *tropical jungles*.

In addition to the trees, which may grow to a great height, the ground is covered with grasses and bushes, and over the trees and around their trunks twine creepers and the roots of plants that take their food from the air. As a result, the foliage is in places so dense that the forest is dark and gloomy. The greatest tropical forests are those of the Amazon and the Congo, and those of the East Indies.

The forms of vegetation growing in these forests are for the most part unfamiliar to those who live in the northern part of the United States unless they have been seen in green-



FIG. 120. Tropical palm, showing the peculiar trunk growth.

houses. They include many trees like the banana, plantain, bread-fruit, and coconut palm, which furnish food to the native peoples, and whose products we are daily using in increasing quantity. (See Fig. 120.) The rubber tree of the tropical forests furnishes us crude rubber. The best dye-woods and most valuable cabinet woods come from these regions, as do also common spices, such as cloves, nutmeg, cinnamon, ginger, and pepper. The East Indies particularly produce an enormous quantity

of bamboo, a giant grass rising to a height of sixty or seventy feet, and used in various ways the world over, especially in the manufacture of furniture.

Savannas. The regions near the northern and southern tropics, as we have seen,

have but one rainy season a year. At that time all vegetation bursts forth and grows abundantly for a few weeks, and the whole region is covered with green grass and blooming

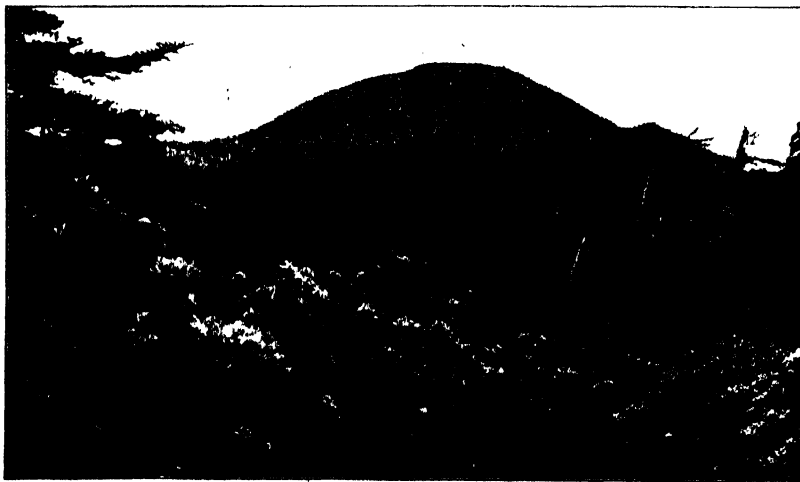


FIG. 121. A rhododendron thicket in North Carolina.

flowers. When the rain stops, everything dries up and turns brown and gray; grass cures on the stalk and furnishes food for cattle. The temperature here is never below sixty degrees, and the rainfall ranges from ten to forty inches a year.

These grassy regions, which are known as *savannas* in many parts of the world, are found in Central America, in the valley of the Orinoco (where they are known as *llanos*), south of the wet jungles of the Amazon (where they are called *campos*), just north and south of the wet jungles of Africa, in southeastern Asia, and in northern Australia. (See Fig. 119.)

Temperate Forests. The most progressive nations as well as the densest population of the world lie in the belt of *temperate forests*. In the Northern Hemisphere this belt includes many kinds of trees; in the northern portion mostly evergreens, and in the southern portion largely deciduous trees which shed their leaves annually. The southern portion of this region, which borders on the tropics, is sometimes called the subtropical forest, because most of its trees cannot live where the



FIG. 122. Palmetto trees in a subtropical forest.

temperature is even cool. (See Figs. 121, 122, 123, and 124.)

The people of the eastern part of the United States live in the region of temperate forests, though the forests have largely disappeared. This is clear when we remember that trees practically covered the ground before white men came to America, and that, if the region is not cultivated for a year or two, it at once begins to grow up to trees. The region of temperate forests has abundant rains, well distributed through

the year, and in those parts where the sunshine and the rainfall are both abundant, as they are in the southern portions of the belt, we find both deciduous and evergreen trees.

We shall learn more concerning the valuable plant products of this region as we study about our own country and the continent of Eurasia. Owing to the great variety of plant life that grows in the temperate forest region, the people can carry on almost every possible occupation. Agriculture, grazing, and lumbering depend entirely, of course, upon the distribution and kind of plants. Owing to the variety of natural riches and because of the healthful



FIG. 123. A Spanish oak with its hanging moss.



FIG. 124. Pine growth in a temperate forest region.

climate, the temperate forest region produces a large portion of the food products of the world.

Arid Deserts;

Oases. In the interior of the continents and on the leeward side of the great mountain ranges, particularly in the westerly wind area and in the trade-wind belts where the wind blows constantly

over the land, or has lost its moisture on a mountain barrier, we have regions of arid desert, where but little vegetation grows except on the higher mountains. The arid deserts, therefore, have few resources, and are mostly occupied by wandering people, dependent upon the flocks which they drive from place to place in search of food.

Where vegetation exists in the desert, it is usually in the form of spiny or fleshy cacti or similar plants, although there are some shrubs and bushes. (See Figs. 125 and 126.) In the few places where water comes to the surface, forming natural camping grounds for people moving through the desert, and furnishing water for the soil, we

have small garden spots known as *oases*. The oases within the desert, Sahara, are so important that they are better known than many large towns in more densely inhabited regions. (See Fig. 481.) The arid and the cold deserts are the most thinly populated regions in the world.

Steppes. In the Temperate Belts, lying between the temperate forests on one side and the arid deserts on the other, are regions of semi-arid country in which the rainfall is between ten and twenty inches. These regions, or *steppes*, are natural grasslands and great grazing countries. (See Fig. 128.)

The population is rather thinly scattered, but with the increased use of irrigation, by means of which water is secured for agriculture, grazing is gradually giving place to agriculture.

A large part of our western plains is a steppe

region, but the great steppe land of the world is east, west, and north of the Caspian Sea



FIG. 125. Desert vegetation.

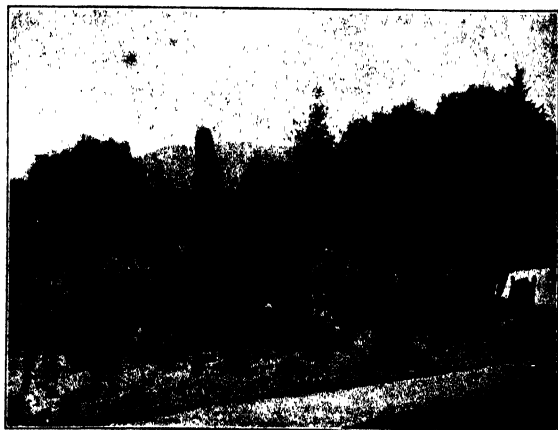


FIG. 126. Characteristic spiny cacti from an arid desert.

in Eurasia. Steppes also extend over a considerable portion of South America, South Africa, and eastern Australia, in all of which regions grazing is an important industry.

Tundras and Ice Deserts.

As we go toward the poles from the temperate regions the vegetation becomes dwarfed and the trees fewer. Finally trees and bushes are left behind, and we come to a region in which only berries, mosses, and quick-blooming plants grow in a thin surface layer of soil from which the frost has melted and which will support vegetation for only a few weeks in the short summer. This region is known as the *tundra*. It is largely occupied by wild animals and by hunting tribes who live in the edge of the temperate forests or on the seashore in winter, and hunt in the forests in summer. The people wander from place to place and live in homes that can be easily moved.

In the Northern Hemisphere, north of the tundra and on the border of the frozen deserts, dwell the Eskimos, who live entirely upon animal food, gained chiefly from the ocean. In the vast ice fields of the frozen desert about the north and south poles no people can live. These regions are the great unexplored areas of the world.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Make a list of the tropical forest trees that you have seen or would recognize from a picture. (2) Draw a picture of one you have seen. (3) On an outline map of the world color with blue the tropical forest region. Write the name of a town in each continent in this region and beside it write in figures the amount of yearly rainfall of this town with its January and July temperature. (4) What are the chief products of this forest region?

(5) Make a list of the trees of the temperate region that you know, and mark with a cross those that grow about your home. (6) Are deciduous trees or conifers most abundant?

(7) On an outline map of the world locate the chief grasslands. (8) In which continent are the grasslands called steppes? Plains? Campos? Llanos?

(9) On the same outline map color in deep yellow the arid deserts of the world, and in light yellow the tundra regions.

(10) Write in your map the names of the chief animals of the tundra region and draw a line under those which are useful to man. (11) What do you know of individuals who have penetrated the ice deserts? How have they managed to live there?

(12) Draw a picture of a plant island in the Hot Belt. (13) If you have climbed a high mountain describe the change in vegetation from the base to the summit. (14) How can you account for this change? (15) Had this mountain been glaciated or not? (16) How

do you know? If you live in a hilly region describe the vegetation on the hills and compare it with that of the valleys. (17) Why does the grass grow green more quickly in spring near streams?



FIG. 127. A view of the Nile and the Pyramids.

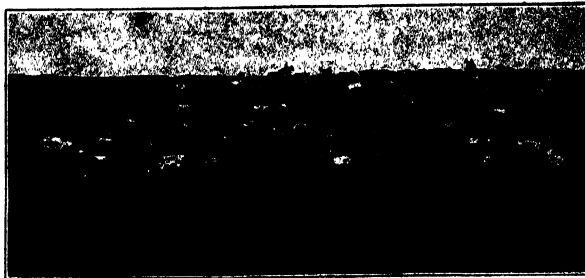
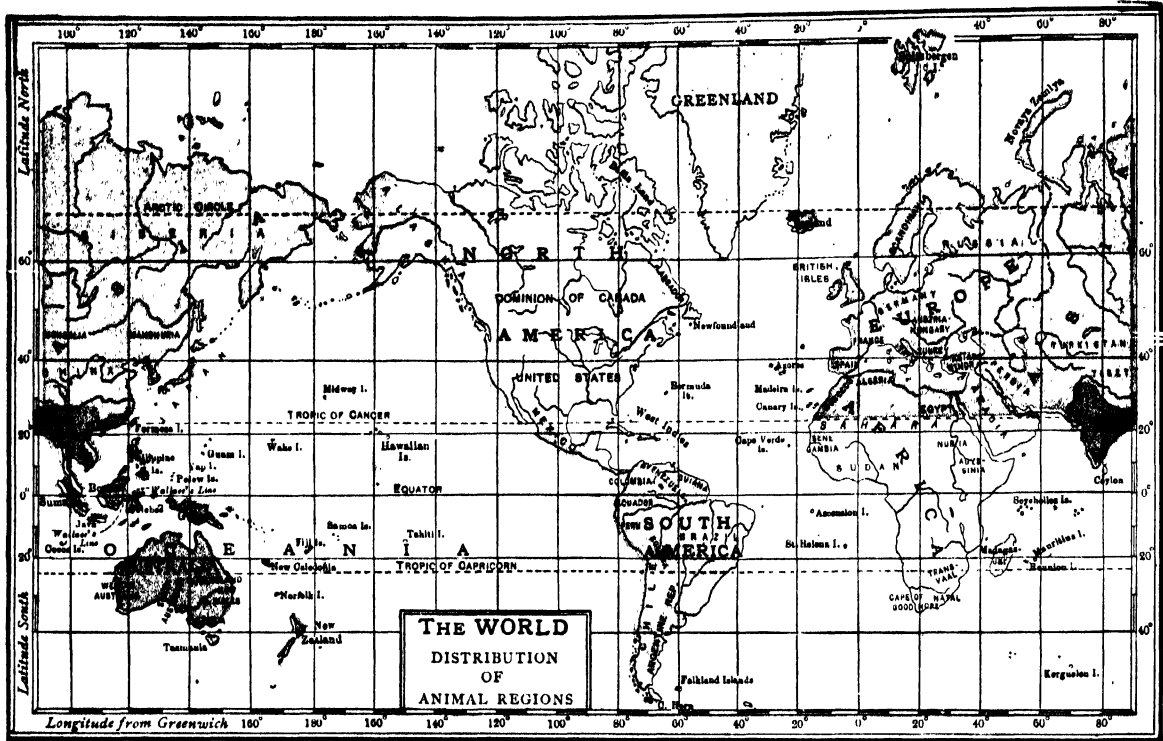


FIG. 128. Grazing on the steppes of the western United States.



North American Region Eurasian Region South American Region Ethiopian Region Oriental Region Australian Region
FIG. 129. The distribution of wild animals by regions.

XIX. DISTRIBUTION OF ANIMALS

The Dependence of Animals upon Plants.

The distribution of animals over the world

is closely related to the distribution of plants, for all animals depend directly or indirectly upon plants for their food.

Animals, however, can move about in search of food, and therefore are not so likely to die as are plants if the food or water supply fails because of a bad season. Great numbers of animals live solely upon plants. We call such animals *herbivorous*. Others, like the great cat

family, which includes the lion and the tiger, live upon other animals, and are called *carnivorous*. (See Figs. 143 and 148.) But as the victims that furnish them food depend upon grass and vegetation for their suste-

nance, plants are of importance to them also. Other animals, including man, eat both plant and animal food.

Animals also need shelter

and a certain degree of warmth. Some animals, like seals and certain birds, have a very wide distribution, moving from place to place with the season so as to secure food and comfort. Others live only where the particular food which they need is found.

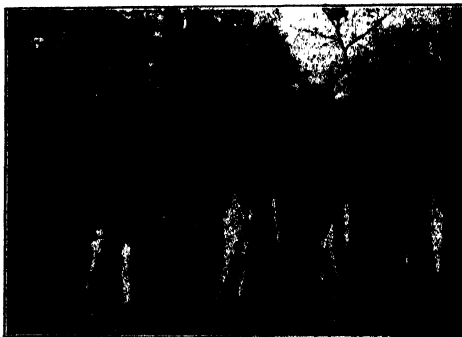


FIG. 130. A group of moose.



FIG. 131. A fallow deer.



FIG. 132. *The white polar bear from the Arctic regions.*

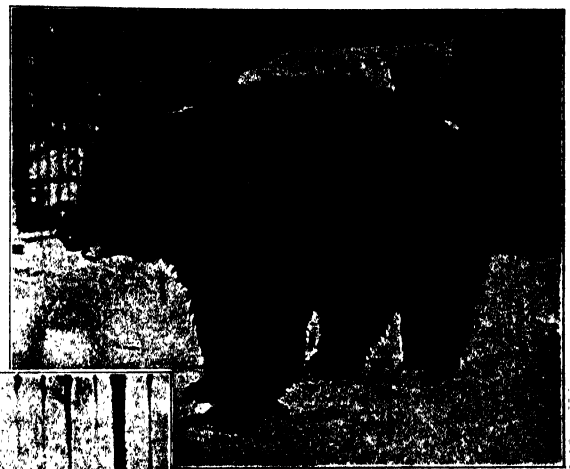


FIG. 134. *The large Kodiak bear of Alaska.*



FIG. 133. *The coyote of the western United States.*

The animals of the land are numerous and of many kinds, but include only a part of the living creatures of the world. Living creatures abound in the ocean also; some swim freely from place to place, remaining usually in waters of a certain temperature, however; others, like oysters and clams, and the corals of which we have spoken, live on the bottom of the ocean in its shallower parts, and are dependent upon the waters that move by them for their food.

Relation of Animal Characteristics to Regions. We may study the distribution of animals as we have done that of plants, according to whether they live in the deserts, the grasslands, or the forests. In the grasslands the larger animals include our common cattle, buffaloes, which formerly lived in such great numbers in North America, and the many forms of deer and antelope. (See Figs. 130, 131, and 135.)

In the tropical forests we find apes, bats, and many of the animals that live almost entirely on nuts and fruits. In the outskirts of the forests and the grasslands are found the carnivorous animals which prey on the animals of both these regions. They are often the color of the grass in which they live.

The animals of the desert are nearly all a grayish brown, being similar in color to the desert region itself. Of these the coyotes of our western plains and the prairie dogs of the same region are good illustrations. (See Fig. 133.)

In the steppe region, where the land is



FIG. 135. *A group of buffaloes.*

brown during the dry season which prevails the larger part of the year, the animals are a brighter brown. In the tropical forests many of the insects and birds are green like the region in which they live. The green parrots, sometimes

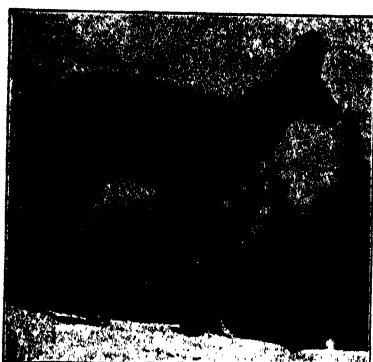


FIG. 136. A chamois.

kept as pets, and the many-colored humming birds of South America are tropical forest-dwellers.

The Arctic animals, like the polar bear, are white like the region in which they live. (See Fig. 132.) Other polar animals, like the Arctic fox and the bird known as the ptarmigan, are white in winter but change their color in summer when the snow has disappeared for a short time.

Animal Regions and Resemblances. It has been found better, however, to consider the distribution of animals in



FIG. 138. Wild Canada geese.

of northern Europe and Asia that it is usually considered as a region by itself, which we may call the *North American Region*. Among the animals which are found only in this district are the musk ox, the

FIG. 139. Wild turkeys.

skunk, the prairie dog, the wild turkey, and the raccoon. (See Figs. 134, 138, 139, and 140.)

Among the animals which were once found only in the northern parts of the Old World, which we may call the *Eurasian Region*, are the mole, living in the ground, the rat, sheep, goat, and camel. Many of these forms have been brought to America by the white people and are now widely scattered throughout the Western Hemisphere.

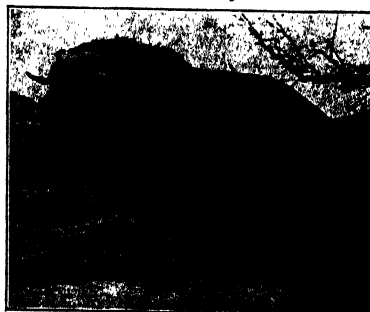


FIG. 140. A musk ox.

accordance with their general resemblances. All of North America north of Central America, all of Eurasia north of the Himalayas, and Africa north of the desert, Sahara, have many animals which are alike. These are the bear, the elk, the reindeer, the fox, the wolf, and many others. This area, which is sometimes grouped as one *animal region*, includes the greater portion of the land of the world. (See Fig. 129.)

South American Region. In Central and South America there are many forms of animals found nowhere else in the world. The true monkeys, with their long tails which they use in climbing; the ant-eaters; the



FIG. 141. Alligators of the southern United States.

armor-covered armadillos; the largest flying bird in the world, the condor; many humming birds; and the great ostrich-like bird known as the rhea, are distinctive of this region, which is known as the *South American Region*. (See Figs. 142 and 350.)

The puma and the jaguar, both great cat-like animals, extend into North America, and the tapir is found both in South America and in southeastern Asia.

Ethiopian Region. South of the desert, Sahara, which is so barren and dry that animals cannot readily migrate across it, is the vast area known as the *Ethiopian Region*; this contains many animals not found elsewhere. The great hippopotamus, living in the rivers and swamps of the hot regions of Africa; the long-necked giraffe; the striped, horse-like zebras and the smaller quaggas; the ostrich, the largest walking bird in the world; the great man-like gorilla, and the chimpanzee, live in this region only. Here also are found great num-



FIG. 142. The condor, the largest flying bird in the world.



FIG. 143. An African lioness.

bers of antelopes. (See Figs. 144, 145, 146, and 147.)

Many animals of the Ethiopian Region are also common in southeastern Asia. Among others that might be mentioned as common to both regions are the lion, the leopard, the panther, the hyena, the elephant, and the rhinoceros, which are frequently seen in our

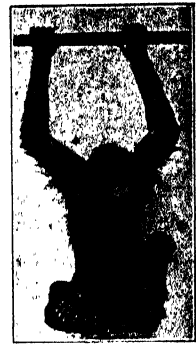


FIG. 144. The chimpanzee.

circuses and zoölogical parks.

Oriental Region. In southeastern Asia, which lies in the Hot Belt and therefore has an abundance of rainfall



FIG. 145. The striped, horse-like zebras.

and vegetation, we find a great number of carnivorous animals, including those already mentioned, and also the tiger, which is native to this region only, but which sometimes ranges far north over Asia nearly to the Arctic Circle. The animals of this district, which is known as the *Oriental Region*, are kept from migrating into the Eurasian Region to the north by the great mountain barrier of the Himálayas and the other mountains which lie to the north and west.

Australian Region. The islands close to Asia, including Sumatra, Borneo, and the Philippines, have animals similar to those of the Oriental Region. Across a narrow channel of deep water which separates these islands from those of the north coast of Australia is the *Australian Region*, in which the animals are entirely different from any we have mentioned. In fact, the difference is so great that this line of separation is known as *Wallace's Line*, named for the eminent scientist, Alfred Russell Wallace, who first showed the reason for the great difference between the animals of the Oriental Region and the Australian Region.

In the Australian Region we find no animals like those of any other part of the world except the domesticated forms like horses, dogs, sheep, cattle, and rabbits, which have been carried there by white men. The most interesting perhaps are the mammals, which suckle their young. The mammals of Australia differ from nearly all others because they carry their young in a pouch of skin in the underside of the body. The largest of these pouched animals, or *marsupials*, are the kangaroos, which can leap rapidly by

using their strong hind legs and great tails. (See Fig. 151.)

Here also we find animals which are mammals, yet lay eggs, like the duck mole. The birds also are peculiar. The largest are the cassowary (see Fig. 152) and the emu, both somewhat like an ostrich. Many of the birds are beautiful, like the bower bird which builds a nest of brightly colored objects, the brilliantly colored cockatoo, and the lyre bird, whose great tail gives it its name.

Domestic Animals.

Among the animals which are most broadly distributed over the world are those which have been domesticated or made useful by man, which can live in various climates and whose food man supplies, if it cannot be secured by the animals themselves the year round. (See Fig. 150.)

The house dog is found wherever people live. As it requires but little care and readily becomes a friend to man, it has followed him in his wanderings more than any other animal. In extremely cold countries, where vegetation is lacking, dogs are much used for drawing loads, because the necessary animal food can be readily carried, when it would be impossible to transport enough plant food for horses.



FIG. 146. *The double-horned rhinoceros.*



FIG. 147. *The hippopotamus.*



FIG. 148. *The tiger.*



FIG. 149. *The elephant.*

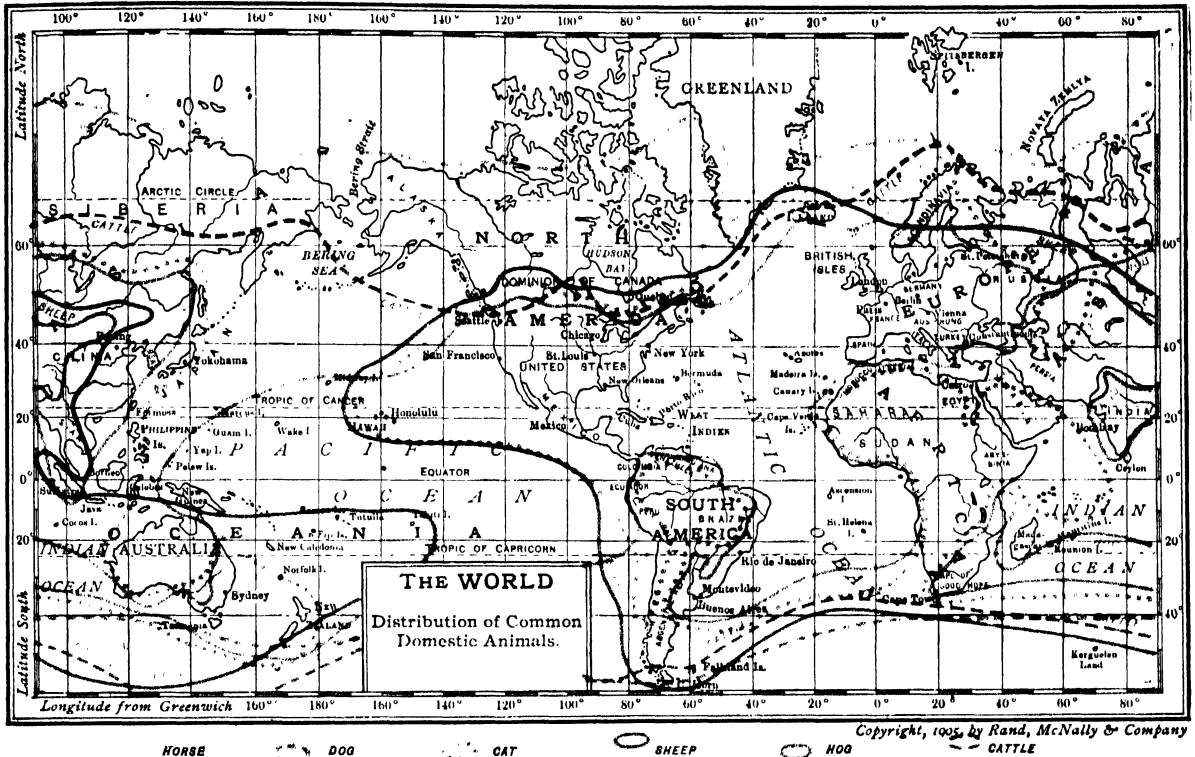


FIG. 150. The distribution of our common domestic animals.

The house cat, another very widely distributed animal, is found almost universally in those regions occupied by the white peoples, but less among savage or primitive peoples, because it cannot be domesticated as easily as the dog. In North America it appears nearly everywhere south of Hudson Bay, and through Central America. It is found around the coast of South America, and extends farthest inland in the Argentine Republic. The cat is also distributed

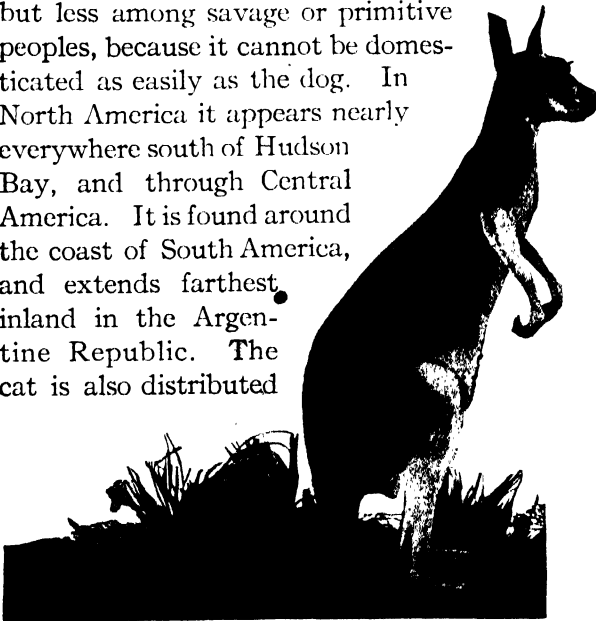


FIG. 151. The kangaroo.

throughout the larger part of Europe and Asia, except in northern Asia, in the occupied region of Australia, and along the east and west coasts of Africa south of the deserts. It is found in few islands of the Pacific except in the Hawaiian group, which is occupied by white people.

The horse lives all over the world except in the tundras and cold deserts, in a part of Australia, and in the equatorial jungles of Africa and South America. Sheep and cattle are distributed over the world wherever they have proved an advantage to men, and where food can be readily secured for them.

Horses, sheep, cattle, and hogs are the most important of the domestic animals, because the



FIG. 152. The cassowary.



FIG. 153. *The orang-outang.*

The camel is the most useful domestic animal in the deserts of southwestern Asia and northern Africa. Its feet are so shaped that they do not sink into the sand, and it can go long distances without food or water. Hence the camel is used almost everywhere in the hot, dry desert, both for traveling and for transporting goods.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Make a list of the animals that live in the desert region. (2) Choose one and describe its appearance and habits. (3) Do the same for the tropical forest region, the tundra region, and the grasslands.

(4) What advantage is it to animals of any region to be similar in color to their surroundings? Give illustrations of this from the different vegetation regions.

(5) Name any plants or animals that are now at home in North America which have been brought from other continents. (6) Make a list of animals peculiar to South America and mark with a cross those whose pictures you find on these pages. (7) Do the same for the Ethiopian region. (8) Name the countries in which you can find in its native home the condor; the camel; the giraffe; the armadillo; the gorilla; the emu; the boa-constrictor.

(9) Locate Wallace's Line. (10) Why has this line been drawn? (11) Describe one of the Australian animals. (12) Why cannot animals readily migrate over mountains or across deserts? (13) Why are the animals of the North American and Eurasian regions so closely similar?

horse is the great draft animal of the world, and the others are the chief food-producing animals. Sheep are also important for their wool, and cattle for their skins.



FIG. 154. *Camels used for traveling in deserts.*

XX. THE PEOPLE OF THE WORLD

The Distribution of Mankind. We do not know exactly how many people there are in the world, but the number is estimated at nearly 1,600,000,000. Mankind is distributed very unevenly. The regions of permanent ice on the mountains and about the poles are uninhabited. Deserts contain very few people, except around the oases, and the hot, moist jungles also are practically uninhabited.

The largest numbers of people are found in

the lowlands near the seashore, where the climate is not too severe for outdoor labor the year round, and where there is sufficient moisture to raise the crops necessary for food. The most densely inhabited region of the world, outside of certain small areas in some of the largest cities, is in the low plains of southeastern Asia. (See Fig. 169.)

The most progressive nations live in the coastal portions of the Temperate Belts where the summers are not too hot and the winters not too cold, and yet where there is enough contrast between summer and winter to make it healthful. In the occupied regions of the Hot Belt the people are not so energetic and advanced as they are in the cooler Temperate Belts. White people cannot live



FIG. 155. *A schoolmaster in India, a dark-skinned Caucasian.*

permanently in many tropical regions except where the altitude is sufficiently high to give a cooler and drier climate than is found in the lowlands.

The White Race. The largest number of people belong to the *Caucasian* or *White Race*. The members of this race have oval faces, small mouths and lips, large, narrow noses, and straight eyes. They are the most active, enterprising, and imaginative race of the world; they speak many languages and are divided into many nations. Some people of the Caucasian race are very dark-colored, so

that really two great groups of white people exist, the dark-skinned and the light-skinned. The light-skinned live in the cooler portions of the temperate belts, while the dark-skinned occupy the warmer parts of this belt and the subtropical regions. (See Fig. 155.)

In earlier times the white race lived only in the Eastern Hemisphere. From there they have emigrated in search of new homes or better opportunities for living, until now they are found in all regions where the climate is favorable for progress. They are found in great numbers throughout the larger part of North America, Europe, South America, and in the coastal regions of Australia, and are increasing in the tropics.



FIG. 156 *Italian children, dark-skinned Caucasians.*

some of the most backward tribes of the world. The Japanese, Chinese, Eskimos, and Laplanders all belong to the yellow race. The Japanese are the most progressive and enterprising of this race. (See Figs. 157, 158, and 159.)

The Red Race. The third great race is the *American* or *Red Race*, sometimes considered as belonging to the Yellow Race.

The Red Race is found only in America, and it includes all the native peoples of the Western Hemisphere except the Eskimos. By native, we mean the peoples who do not, by birth or descent, belong to the Eastern Continents. The people of the red race have a yellowish, copper-colored skin, long, coarse, black hair, small round eyes,



Fig 157. *Children of Burma who belong to the Brown Race*

and are about the height of the white race. Most of the red race are but little civilized, although a few are just beginning to develop industries which will furnish products of value to the rest of the world. The Indians do not readily show their true nature to strangers and hence are little understood. Usually considered a sullen and cruel people, this reputation is often far from just. (See Figs. 160 and 162.)

The Black Race. The fourth and last group of people is the *Black* or *Negro Race*. Their native home is in the tropical region of Africa, in Australia and the neighboring islands. Negroes were formerly brought to America as slaves, and now are found in the warmer portions of North and South America in great numbers. (See Fig. 163.)

The Negroes that we know in this country have a dark brown or black skin, short, black, kinky hair, very broad, flat noses, large round eyes, large teeth, and thick lips, and are about the same height as white people. As a race they are somewhat indolent, like other peoples whose homes are in tropical countries; they are often impulsive in their actions, but are faithful and affectionate to any one for whom they care.

In central Africa, in certain parts of southern Africa, and in a few of the islands of the world are the Negritos, who are like the Negroes in many ways, but much shorter; some of them are not more than four feet in height. These people are not found anywhere except in their native homes. The natives of Australia belonging to the Negro Race are the lowest and most uncivilized people of the world. They live almost entirely

on the food to be obtained from the animals and the plants about them, and they furnish few products of value to the rest of the world, except those which they can gather from the forests or animals without much labor.

Questions and Exercises

(1) On an outline map of the world, mark in dark brown the most densely populated regions. (2) What countries are they in? (3) Locate a town in each region and write on the map the name of the race found in the greatest numbers in this town.

(4) Make a list of the countries inhabited by the Caucasian Race; the Mongolian Race; the Negroes.

XXI. THE PEOPLE OF THE WORLD (Continued)

Savage People. Everywhere people must secure food, clothing, and shelter in some way, but the manner of procuring these necessities differs among different races, and even among different divisions of the same race.

The lowliest people are those who get their living entirely by hunting and fishing, or by digging edible roots, or gathering the fruit of plants that grow about them. These people we call *savage*. There is no division of labor among them, every man seeking the necessities of life for his family without help. Usually, however, the men are the hunters, while the women gather the roots and carry the burdens on a march. Their homes are extremely simple, and many have no fixed abode, moving about over the country as they wish, and setting up a hut or shelter wherever they go.

These hunting and fishing races are found only in small numbers in a place because they



FIG. 158. A Japanese girl.

need a large area to furnish the necessary food for a few people. In the colder regions they dress in skins, but in the warmer regions they wear few clothes. Their implements are simple, and consist chiefly of cooking utensils, spears, clubs, and other hunting implements. Some of them do not even have the simple bow and arrow, so well known among our western Indians.

Barbarous People.

Those people who carry on grazing or primitive agriculture, that is, who raise crops from the soil or follow flocks and herds about the country, are called barbarians, and are more advanced than savages. (See Figs. 159 and 165.) People who live by their herds and wander from place to place are called *nomads*.

Some nomadic peoples, like the Arabs of Asia and Africa, live in villages, each of which is made up of a few families. These people carry on agriculture in a simple way and have developed certain industries and made tools to help them in their work. Even among these people, however, there is little division

of occupation, except between the men and the women. Each family or tribe secures for itself all that it needs for sustaining life.

Civilized People. The highest group is that known as *civilized*. Among civilized

people many varied industries are followed, and, as a rule, each worker devotes his attention to some one particular thing, with

a view to exchanging or trading the product he cannot use for other things which he needs or desires, and which other people, for some reason, can produce better than he can.

The Industries of Civilized People.

The larger number of the civilized people of the world live in the country. They are engaged

chiefly in agriculture, grazing, mining, or lumbering, occupations which cannot be carried on in densely populated regions. These people

live mostly in permanent homes, although in grazing and, to some extent, in lumbering, the men have to leave their homes for many months in the year. They make use of many inventions and tools unknown to the barbarous and savage peoples. They devote greater attention to their home life, to the education of their children, and to the development of new industries and of commerce. They also build cities and towns,

because they have found it advantageous to live in as large groups as possible.

The products secured from the earth through the industries mentioned furnish the materials which are manufactured or



FIG. 159. *Tunguses of Siberia.*



FIG. 160. *Indian children of North America with their decorated dress.*

changed in some way before they can be used. We find, therefore, many thickly settled areas in which manufacturing and trading are the leading occupations of the people. Groups of people gathered together for these purposes in one place form a town or city. It is in the towns and cities that we find the greatest business activity and the greatest use of modern conveniences and luxuries. Every occupation except mining, lumbering, and hunting can be illustrated in a large city like New York.

The people who are confined in factories or business houses do not have the freedom of life that people living in the country enjoy, and in many respects their life is less pleasant and healthful.

Commerce and Trade. The people engaged in the different industries mentioned are all producing articles for use or exchange. The buying and selling and transporting of goods from one part of the world to another is known as *commerce* or *trade*.

The simplest form of commerce is the exchange of one article directly for another, which is known as *barter*. This is seen sometimes in small country towns where the farmer takes his products to the store and exchanges them for the goods he desires. Years ago the miner *bartered* when he took to the trading store the nugget of gold he had dug from the earth. A hunter or

trapper often brings in skins to exchange for food and other things he needs.

In most commerce, however, *money* is used. Money is usually made from some valuable metal that will not readily wear out, and that can be exchanged for anything else. In commerce, therefore, a man exchanges the products he has to sell for money, such as bank checks or drafts, and then buys other things at his convenience.

Transportation. In early times local commerce on land was carried on almost entirely by means of caravans of camels or horses. (See Figs. 154 and 166.) The cost of transportation was so great that, of course, only the richest and the most valuable products could be transported in this way.

People living close to a great sea like the Mediterranean early learned navigation and thus oceanic commerce developed.

A large part of the trade of the world is now carried on over the oceans. (See Fig. 161.) Formerly large bodies of water were a hindrance to commerce because they interrupted land transportation. Now in many places the land

is a hindrance to commerce, because it interrupts water transportation, which for long distances is much cheaper than transportation by land.

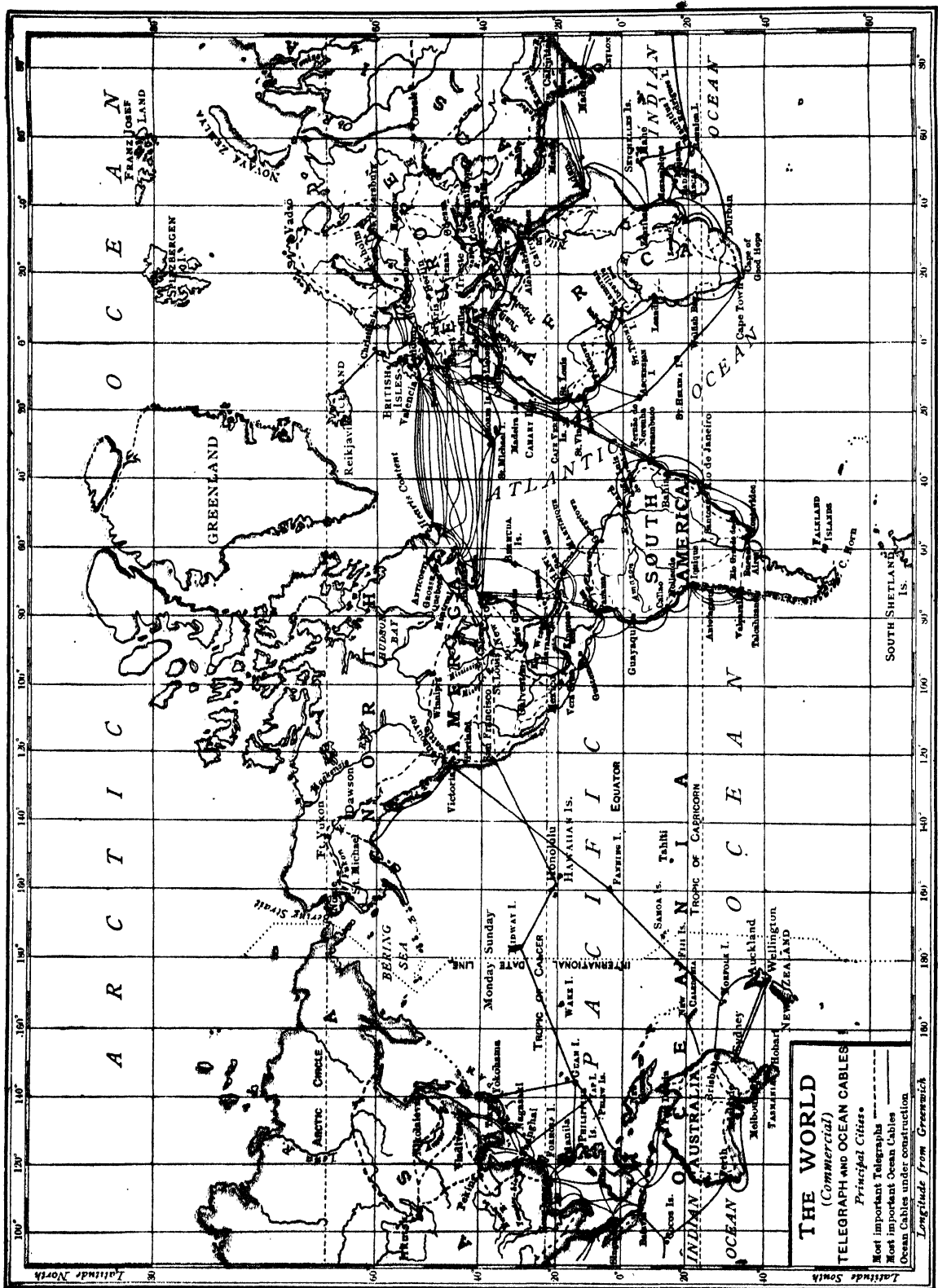
To overcome land obstructions and to



FIG. 162. Moki Indian girls of Arizona.



FIG. 163. Australian negro children.



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FIG. 164.

Revised, 1904.

provide continuous highways of water along lines of valuable trade, men build canals. The canal now under construction across the Isthmus of Panama will be of vast importance as it will shorten many of the much-used water routes of the world. (See Fig. 167.)

Water commerce is also carried on along the navigable rivers, between different places on the coasts of a country, and along canals which have been built to connect navigable rivers or lakes.

Land Commerce. Land commerce is now conducted largely by means of railroads, although, in some of the more rugged and thinly inhabited portions of the world, goods are still transported by caravans, by wagons, by pack animals, and, in some places, even on men's backs. (See Fig. 166.) Certain commodities, like oil and gas, are transported from place to place through great pipes that have been laid underground for many miles.

More and more of the power developed by great waterfalls is now being converted into electricity and carried long distances by means of wires stretched above the ground like telegraph and telephone wires. This power is chiefly used for electric lighting and for running street railways and machinery.

Methods of Communication. With the development of commerce, quicker communication between one part of the world and another has become necessary. The most common means of communication between people who want to engage in business is by letters carried from place to place

by the mails. When the greatest haste is desired, messages are also sent by means of the telegraph or the telephone.

Telegraph cables across the Atlantic Ocean have been in use since 1866, and in the year 1903 two cables were completed across the Pacific Ocean. Now all the great countries of the world are connected with one another by telegraph. (See Fig. 164.)

The latest invention for rapid communication between places is what is known as wireless telegraphy, by means of which messages are sent through the air from one point to another many hundred miles away by electricity.

Government.

The successful development of any community depends largely upon whether people regard the rights of their neighbors, or whether they try to live for themselves alone. In every group of people some form of

government is necessary, because there are always some individuals who will not do as they should unless they are made to do so. Government has arisen also because there are many things which everyone in a community needs, but which a few people attend to better and more cheaply for the community as a whole. The Post Office Department and the Lighthouse Service are perhaps the best illustrations of conveniences that can be provided for by the government better than by each person for himself.

The Forms of Government; the Home.

The simplest form of government is that of the *home*, in which the parents establish certain rules which must be obeyed in order

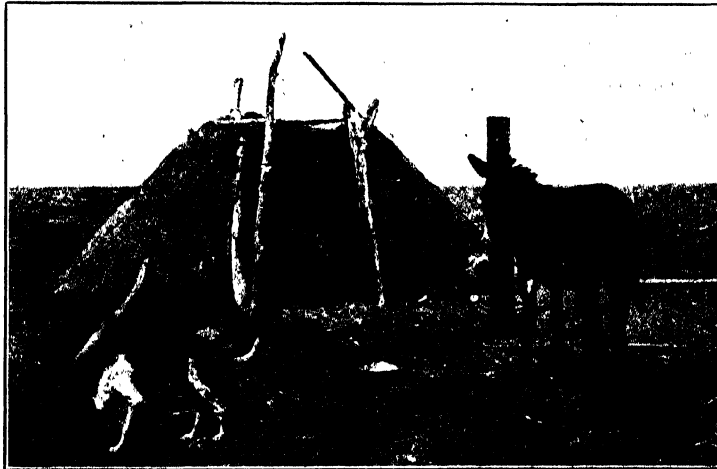


FIG. 165. The winter home of a nomadic Indian, New Mexico.

that all the members of the family may live together in comfort and happiness.

The Village, Town, or City. The next largest form of government is the *village*, *town*, or *city*, which includes many homes and the lands surrounding them. In such a group some central form of government is necessary in order that one family may not interfere with the peace or comfort of the whole community, and in order that conveniences like streets and schools, which are of use to all, may be properly cared for.

In the villages of primitive peoples some one man, known as the *chief*, establishes the laws to be obeyed by all and settles troubles between individuals. Among most civilized peoples, the officers to make and execute the laws are elected by the people. These officers act in the name of the community in establishing laws and in carrying on business which affects the whole community.

The State. Just as a village, town, or city includes all the families living therein, so the highest form of government, the *state* or the *nation*, is made up of all the communities within its territory. The officers of a state have control of all the public conveniences, like asylums and prisons, which are at the service of all the inhabitants.

In the United States, however, the term *state* has a restricted meaning. It is a division of government which stands between the community and the nation, and exercises some of the powers ordinarily exercised by a nation. Our national government establishes laws in reference to the relations of states, regulates affairs with other nations, maintains an army and a navy, and attends to

all matters in which more than one state is concerned.

Democratic and Monarchical Government.

A national government, all of whose officers are elected by the people, is called a democracy. If the officers are appointed by representatives of the people, the government is a republic. Our government partakes of both forms and is therefore properly called a democratic republic. The greater part of its officers are appointed, and all, whether elected or appointed, act in the name of the people. It is far different from a monarchy, where one man acts for the whole nation.

All these kinds of national government may differ in form, but they have grown up for the same reasons, because individuals living in groups cannot be allowed to act as they wish without thought for their neighbors, and because many matters arise which must be managed for the



FIG. 166. Loading a camel caravan.

benefit of the group as a whole.

Relation of Geography to Government. The need for some form of government has arisen everywhere because the geographical conditions have made it possible and advantageous for people to live in groups. The form of government, however, is not directly geographical, because it has been devised by men and not determined in its features by the geographical conditions to be found in any region.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Where are savage tribes living to-day?
- (2) Why are barbarous tribes higher in civilization than savages?
- (3) Name ten rivers in the United States that provide cheap and easy transportation; ten in

Europe. (4) How is transportation interfered with on the Nile? The Congo? The St. Lawrence?

(5) Write the names of six countries of the world that have coasts favorable to commerce.

(6) Opposite each place the names of the chief harbors of that country.

(7) Give instances where canals have facilitated land and water commerce. (8) Make a drawing showing the bodies of water which canals have connected.

(9) Which of all the races of man has taken the smallest part in trade? (10) Which the largest?

(11) In what way does good government promote trade? (12) What means does your government take to further trade? (13) What branch of our national government is of most help to you?

How Man Changes the Distribution of Water. Man modifies the distribution of water over the world in many ways. Water bodies he connects by means of canals (see Fig. 252), and the water from rivers and



FIG. 168. A reindeer sledge, a means of transportation in cold countries.

XXII. HOW MAN CHANGES THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD

(Man is continually changing the geography of the world in many ways. He cannot change the climatic conditions, but he has learned to occupy many regions in spite of the climate. The white man can endure the cold of the

lakes he uses to irrigate his fields. Lakes are sometimes made by building dams so that the water may be used for irrigation or for power. Swamps and lakes are drained so that the land can be used for agriculture.

The mouths of rivers and estuaries are kept from filling or silting up by making the water pass through narrow channels so that the river

detritus is carried far out to sea. The shores of lakes and oceans, particularly about harbors, are changed either by filling up the shallow water so as to make more land, or by deepening the water so as to make a larger harbor.

How Man Changes the Aspect of the Land. Man also changes the form of the land in many ways. He not only increases the amount of land in the way we have mentioned above, but oftentimes he

levels hills into plains. In other places he keeps the water from wearing into the river banks or hillsides, and thus preserves the land. Sometimes he turns rivers from their natural course in order to build a railroad or a canal, and in large old river valleys he builds levees to keep the water from flooding the lowlands.



FIG. 167. A dam across the Oswego River, New York, to turn the water into the Oswego Canal, used for transporting products.

polar regions if he builds comfortable houses and wears furs and thick clothing. (See Fig. 168.) He is constantly learning better how to live in the unhealthy tropical countries, but in all cases he lives in spite of the climate and not because he has changed it in any way. *Imp*

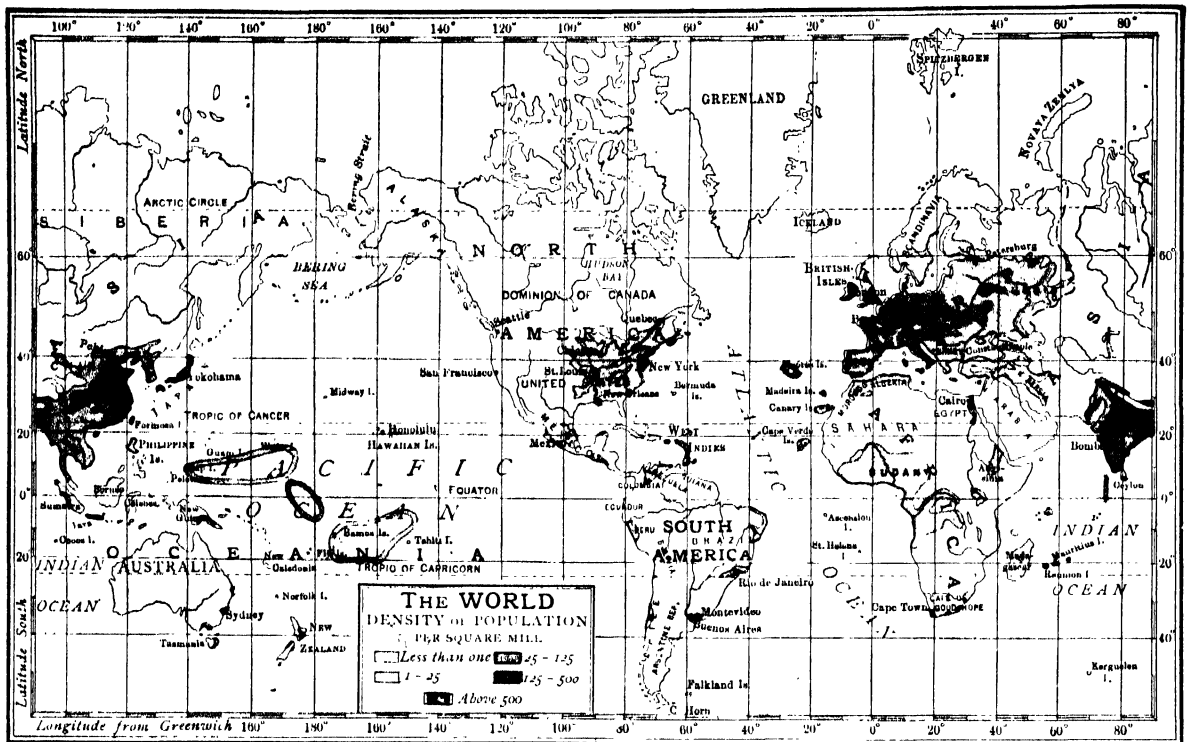


FIG. 169. A map showing the density of population of the world. Copyright, 1904, by Rand, McNally & Company

How Man Changes the Distribution of Plants and Animals. The greatest effect of man geographically, however, is seen in the distribution of animals and plants. The domesticated animals have been carried into remote parts of the world, and food plants have been made to grow wherever the climate and soil conditions permit.

Man has also extended the distribution of many plants and animals that are harmful rather than helpful. The seeds of weeds have been carried in grains and have run riot in new countries. Rats, mice, and vermin have been unconsciously carried by people as they have migrated into a new region.

Sometimes animals transported for the sake of their helpfulness have become nuisances, because they have developed so rapidly in the new country. In this way Australia was overrun by rabbits until now government action has been taken to try to exterminate them. The gypsy moth

brought into the United States with the silk-worm is now devastating the forests of the eastern part of the country in spite of all that people can do.

Increase in the Distribution of Man. These are only a few of the many ways in which man is continually making the distribution of certain animals and plants more general. The distribution of men themselves is continually becoming more complex, because, as old countries have become overpopulated, the people have migrated into new regions, until now the larger part of the land useful to civilized man is occupied. (See Fig. 169.)

Thus, while the natural features of the world influence man in determining what shall be his industries and form of life, and outline the area in which he can live, man in turn changes the natural features of the world as much as he can to suit his own desires and convenience, and to increase the area in which he can earn a living.

PART II

COMPARATIVE GEOGRAPHY OF THE CONTINENTS

NORTH AMERICA

XXIII. THE CONTINENT AS A WHOLE

Size and Position. North America is third in size of all the continents, has more than twice the area of Europe, and contains about one-fifteenth of the population of the world. (See Fig. 28.) In latitude it extends over 62 degrees, or nearly 4,000 miles, north and south. Its width is greatest in the far north, where it covers more than 168 degrees of longitude. (See Figs. 170 and 183.)

In the higher latitudes North America lies close to the Old World, approaching it most closely on the northwest where Bering Strait separates the land masses of Asia and North America by only thirty-six miles.

In the middle and southern latitudes, where the population is most dense and industrial life best developed, the distance between the Old and the New World is much greater.

North America includes the great countries of *Canada*, the *United States*, and *Mexico*, the several small nations of *Central America*, the many islands of the Caribbean Sea, generally known as the *West Indies*, and the large Danish island of *Greenland*.

Coast Line. The coast line of North America is very long, and is greater in proportion to the land area than in any other continent except Europe. The most important large indentations are the *Gulf of Mexico* on the south and *Hudson Bay* on the north. The Gulf of Mexico, from its position in the

warmer portion of the continent, is extremely important commercially, while Hudson Bay is surrounded by unproductive country and is icebound for several months each year.

The Western Coast. The northern portion of the western coast of North America is extremely irregular, and abounds in fiords and sounds. It is also skirted by a series of offshore islands, similar to those bordering Norway.

Southward from Puget Sound the coast is unbroken except for the small inlet of San Francisco Bay and the Gulf of California. Hence the number of good harbors is small. These are centered about *Puget Sound* and *San Francisco Bay*, where navigable rivers break through the high wall of the Coast Ranges. (See Figs. 171 and 172.) The natural harbor of *San Pedro*, on the coast of southern California, has been improved so as to



FIG. 170. North America.

accommodate the commerce of a region which is progressing with great rapidity.

The Eastern and Southern Coasts. The eastern coast of North America north of New York City is extremely irregular, and has many harbors ranging in size from that of *New York*, the most important in the country, to fishing havens just large enough to accommodate a few small fishing vessels. The harbors in this region are close together, and coasting vessels can easily reach shelter in time of storm.

South of New York the coast line is extremely regular, and is broken only at intervals by the occasional indentation of an estuary, like that of *Delaware Bay* or *Chesapeake Bay*, and by many small breaks in the coast bars which are excellent for small vessels. These two estuaries, together with the mouth of the *Mississippi*, are the main outlets for commerce in this region.

A large part of the southern Atlantic shore is bordered by a series of barrier beaches, separated from the mainland by lagoons. Some of these beaches extend out into the ocean as long capes, as *Cape Hatteras*, or as submerged spits which are dangerous to ocean commerce.

Bordering the eastern shore there is a broad, continental shelf, extending off New York, for instance, more than one hundred and fifty miles. (See Fig. 173.) The shallowest

water of this shelf is in the vicinity of Newfoundland. This area is known as *shoals* or *banks*, and abounds in valuable fishes. It forms the chief center of the fishing industry of Canada and the United States.



FIG. 171. The rocky coast of California, looking into Golden Gate, the entrance to San Francisco Bay.

Surface. The surface of North America consists of two extensive highlands, extending in a general north-south direction, and two broad lowlands. (See Fig. 173.) Bordering the western coast from the Aleutian Islands to Panama is the great *Cordilleran* or *Western Highland*. Lower and less rugged than the Cordilleran Highland is the *Appalachian Highland*, which runs nearly parallel with the Atlantic coast from New Brunswick to Alabama. Between the Appalachian Highland and the Atlantic Ocean is the low-lying



FIG. 172. The rugged coast of Oregon, showing islands left by the wearing away of the weaker rocks.

Atlantic Coastal Plain, which begins at New York City and extends southward into northern Mexico. Between the two highlands, and extending from the Arctic Ocean to northern Mexico, is the *Great Central Plain*, a vast tract of land, low in the east and rising in the west to meet the foothills of the Cordilleran Highland.

The fact that the highlands of North America extend in a general north-south direction is of great importance in determining the climate of the continent. The westerly winds from the Pacific Ocean are deprived of much of their moisture by the lofty Cordilleran



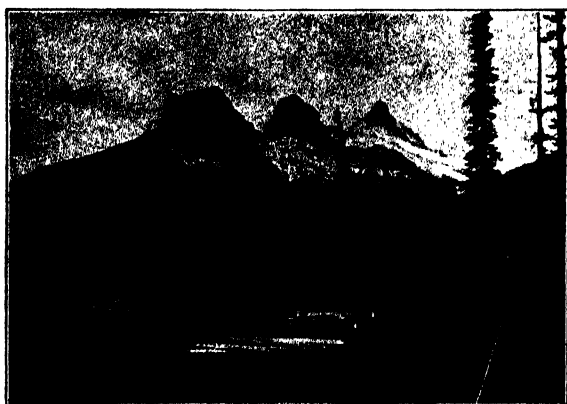


FIG. 174. *The Three Sisters, famous peaks in Alberta.*

Highland, while a large area of the western Mississippi Basin and the Plateau States lying to the leeward of the great mountain wall to the west has a scanty rainfall. In the continent of Europe the highlands extend, approximately, in an east-west direction, and hence the westerly winds, blowing from the Atlantic Ocean, can carry their moisture far into the interior of the continent. This difference illustrates clearly the relation between mountains, winds, and rainfall.

The Cordilleran Highland. The Cordilleran Highland begins in Alaska and extends southward into Mexico. In the north it is narrow and forms no serious barrier to travel between the coast and the interior of Alaska. The highland grows broader to the south in Canada and the United States, reaching its greatest breadth between Colorado and northern California. Hence in this region it is an important barrier to trade and travel, not only because of its height and breadth, but also because it deprives the westerly winds of their moisture and leaves the plains to the east dry and parched.

The Cordilleran Highland is made up of many different mountain ranges: the *Rocky Mountains* in the east, the *Sierra Nevada* and the *Cascade Mountains* in the west, and in the extreme west along the Pacific Ocean, the *Coast Ranges*. These mountain ranges inclose within their borders in the United

States two great plateaus—the *Columbia Plateau* and the *Colorado Plateau*—and an extensive area of interior drainage commonly known as the *Great Basin*.

The Rocky Mountains. The Rocky Mountains in the United States consist of many different ranges, separated from one another by high, level mountain valleys. They rise abruptly from the eastern plains and are broken by few water gaps or river valleys, so that the carriage roads and railroads crossing them are few in number. Some of the railroads which have been built to connect the eastern and western sections of the continent have been constructed at the expenditure of enormous sums of money.

The highest altitudes of the Rocky Mountains in the United States are in Colorado and New Mexico, where there are many peaks exceeding 14,000 feet in altitude.

The northern extension of the Rocky Mountains in Alaska and Canada includes *Mount McKinley*, the highest peak in North America, which has an altitude of more than 20,000 feet. Nearer the coast are two other great peaks which are nearly as high, *Mount Logan* and *Mount St. Elias*.

Plateaus. In the United States the western mountains of the Cordilleran Highland are separated from the Rocky Mountains by the *Columbia Plateau* and the *Colorado Plateau*, which lie along the rivers of the same names, and by the *Great Basin*. (See Fig. 173.) Farther north, in Canada, the east and

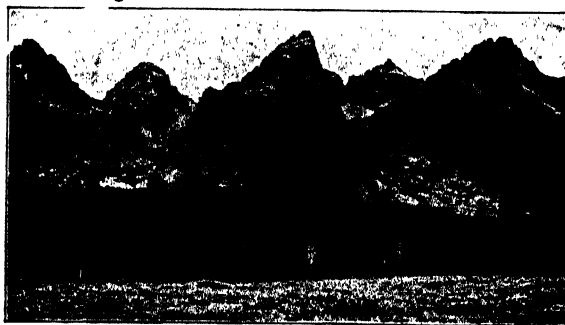


FIG. 175. *Peaks of the Rocky Mountains in the vicinity of Yellowstone Park.*

west mountain ranges come closer together and finally merge in one great highland mass.

Sierra Nevada and Coast Ranges. The western mountains of the Cordilleran Highland throughout the greater portion of their extent consist of two series of nearly parallel systems, the eastern and higher *Sierra Nevada* and *Cascade Mountains*, and the lower ranges bordering the Pacific Ocean, known as the *Coast Ranges*. The

Sierra Nevada and the *Cascade Mountains* are lofty and majestic and contain many glaciers and old volcanic peaks. They are deeply cut by numerous river canyons which are famous for their beauty, and taken together form one of the grandest scenic regions of the world. *Mount Whitney*, in the southern *Sierra Nevada*, rises to an altitude of nearly 15,000 feet and is the highest peak in the United States. The *Coast Ranges* face the Pacific in an almost unbroken wall, so that they give but little opportunity for settlement near the coast.

Highlands of Mexico and Central America. In Mexico the Cordilleran Highland consists of a series of high mountain ranges close to the eastern and western coasts, and of the high Mexican Plateau lying between these ranges.

The western ranges, of which the *Sierra Madre* is the most important, contain many slightly active volcanic peaks. In Central America the mountains run more nearly

northwest and southeast, but still form an almost continuous mountain wall close to the coast. The highlands border the western coast so closely that throughout the larger part of Mexico and Central America there is little opportunity for settlement near

the Pacific. Hence the population is sparse.

The Appalachian Highland. The Appalachian Highland extends from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Alabama. It consists of the *Cumberland* and *Allegheny Plateaus* in the west, and the *Appalachian Mountains* in the east, with the *Great Valley*, a long, narrow depression containing portions of several rivers, lying between.

Compared with the Cordilleran Highland this eastern highland is only a gentle rise of land, for it is not more than 200 miles wide, and the greatest altitude is only a little over 6,000 feet. The

highest peaks are found in New Hampshire and North Carolina.

This highland is an extremely important feature of the surface of the United States because it lies to the east of the great interior



FIG. 176. A narrow valley in the White Mountains.

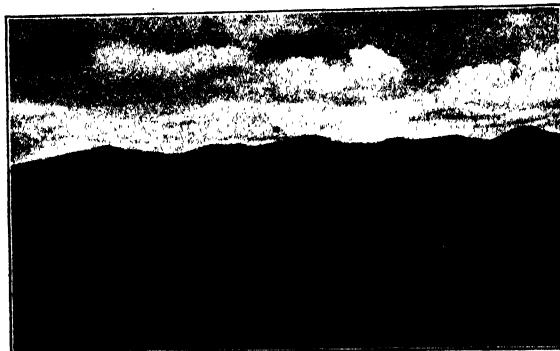


FIG. 177. The White Mountains of New Hampshire.

plains with their vast commercial products, and separates these regions from the most important seaports of the country. We will therefore study its features more in detail when we come to take up the several groups of states of the Union.

Atlantic Coastal

Plain. The *Coastal Plain* which borders the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico is extremely flat and nowhere rises

much over four hundred feet above the sea. It is well watered by the many streams flowing down from the Appalachian Highland, which lies to the west, and contains large areas of valuable soil, which are well adapted to agriculture. The colonies of England planted in this region soon became prosperous and rich, and the coastal plain was the agricultural center of the country until the occupation of the Great Central Plain made the Mississippi Basin the most important agricultural area in America. (See Fig. 253.)

The Great Central Plain. The *Great Central Plain*, lying between the Appalachian and the Cordilleran highlands, extends from the Arctic Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico. It is lowest along the great Mississippi River and the Mackenzie River in Canada. In the portion east of the Mississippi River the slopes are gentle and the altitudes low. The streams here are only slightly sunk beneath the level of the country and hence the relief is nowhere great.

West of the Mississippi River the plain rises gradually in altitude, reaching a height of about 5,000 feet where the mountains actually begin. Throughout the western portion of the plain the rivers have cut several deep

valleys, but these are far apart; as a result the surface in many regions has been but little modified by the rivers, and throughout large areas the plain extends to the horizon in broad, rolling swells, with hardly a break.

Owing to its gentle slopes and to the magnificent system of great rivers which flow through it, the Great Central Plain is an extremely important part of Can-

ada and the United States, and is devoted largely to agriculture or grazing.

Glaciation. The surface features of northern and eastern Canada and the northeastern United States have been greatly modified by glaciation. (See Fig. 180.) A great glacier, originating somewhere in northern Canada, moved gradually out in all directions until it occupied this whole area, except a small region in Wisconsin. This sheet of ice was so deep that it covered the top of Mount Washington, the highest peak in the glaciated area of the United States. When the whole region was covered by ice it must have appeared much as the interior of Greenland does now, that is, as a broad snow and ice plain, unbroken by any points of land.

Throughout the glaciated area the soils were removed from the hilltops and dumped irregularly in the valleys; the rocks

were scratched and grooved often to a depth of several inches, the scratches showing the direction from which the ice came. The great terminal moraine, already mentioned (see page 63), marks the southern limit of this ice sheet.

In the glaciated area nearly every stream is broken by rapids or waterfalls, due to

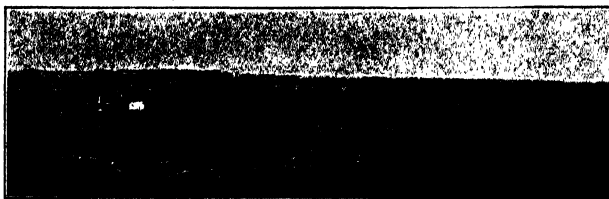


FIG. 178. A wheat field in Manitoba. Notice how level the Great Central Plain is in this region

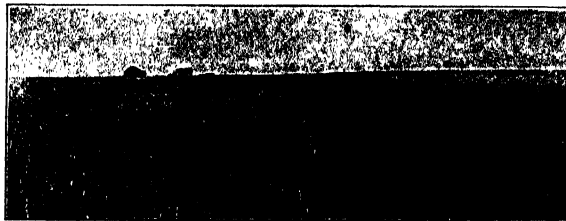
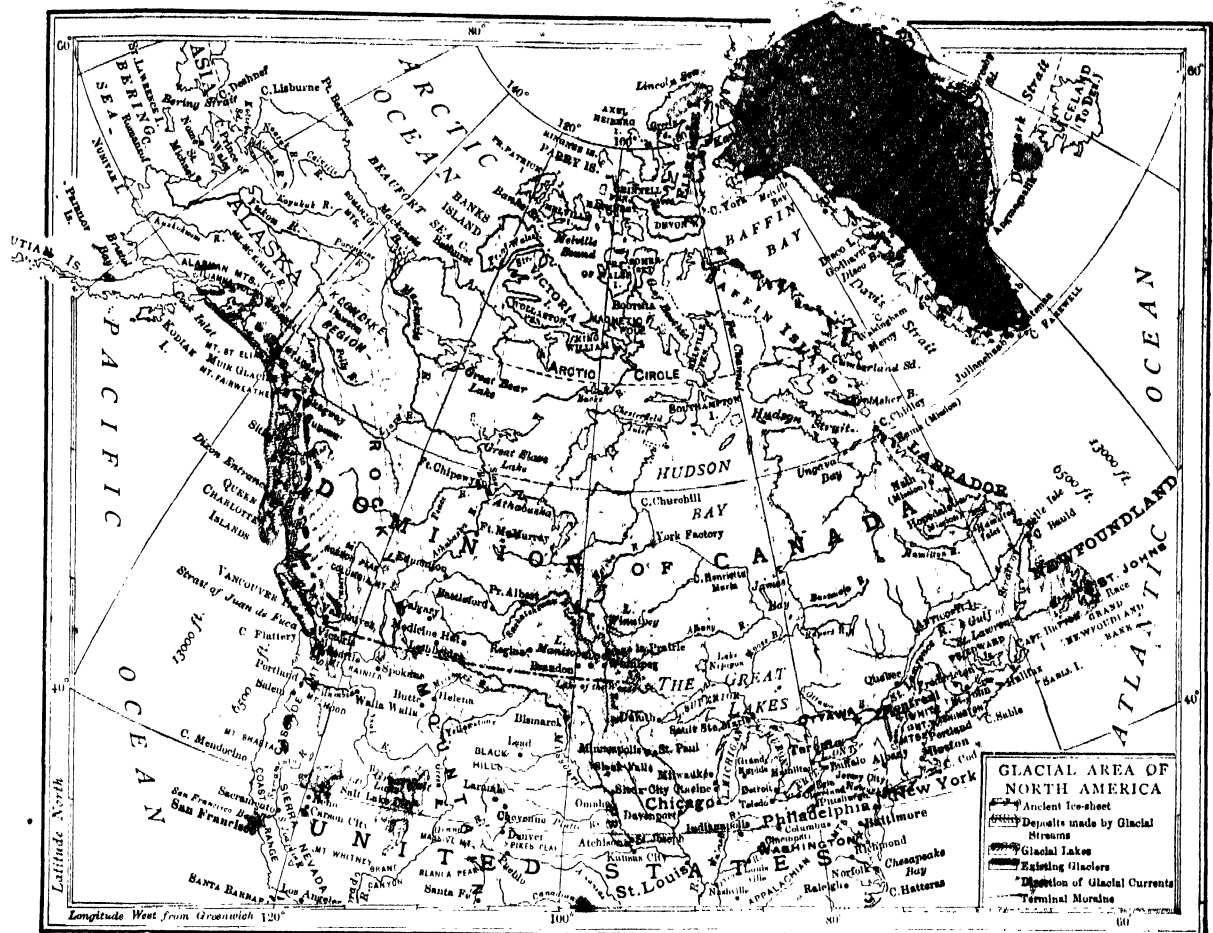


FIG. 179. A field of barley in Manitoba.



Revised, 1911

FIG. 180.

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the work of the ice. The whole country is also studded with countless lakes formed in the undrained depressions in the materials deposited by the ice. The formation of the Great Lakes was due in part to the action of the glaciers.

Drainage and Divides. The *Mississippi River*, together with its tributary, the *Missouri*, is the longest river in the world, and drains by far the larger part of the Great Central Plain of the United States. (See Fig. 173.) The larger rivers of this plain are all navigable for long distances; the Mississippi to St. Paul, and the Missouri to Fort Benton. The Mississippi System contains over 9,000 miles of navigable rivers, and hence furnishes a valuable route for

water commerce. A low divide, sometimes called the *Height of Land*, separates the basin of the Mississippi from the north-flowing streams which drain either into the Arctic Ocean or Hudson Bay. (See Fig. 173.)

The Rocky Mountains are in a general way the divide between the streams flowing to the Atlantic or the Arctic and those flowing to the Pacific. In the southwestern United States, however, the Continental Divide is west of the Rocky Mountains. In some places it is so inconspicuous that it is hard to tell when one passes from the basin of an east-flowing to that of a west-flowing stream.

Nearly all the streams flowing into the Pacific Ocean originate on the western slopes of the coast mountains, and are therefore

short and rapid. Only five large rivers rise east of these mountains and drain into the Pacific. These are the *Yukon*, the *Fraser*, the *Columbia*, the *Sacramento-San Joaquin*, and the *Colorado*, which flows into the Gulf of California between the southern continuation of the Coast Range and the great Cordilleras of Mexico. Thus the waterways to the Pacific are few as compared with those to the Atlantic, and in consequence the ports are not the natural outlets for the products of the rich agricultural and manufacturing areas of the States of the Pacific Coast.

In the northern portion of the Appalachians the divide between the rivers flowing into the Atlantic and the Mississippi is west of the highest mountains, so that several streams like the *Hudson*, the *Delaware*, the *Susquehanna*, and the *James* flow through the Appalachian Mountains in water gaps. (See Fig. 182.) Each of these river valleys thus forms a natural highway across the mountains, and is of great importance in present-day commerce, as it was in early exploration. In the southern Appalachians the divide is along the eastern ridge of the mountains. The rivers flowing to the east from this divide are therefore shorter than some of the northern rivers already mentioned.

The basin of the *Great Lakes* and the *St.*

Lawrence River is separated on the north from the Arctic and Hudson Bay drainage by the low Height of Land already mentioned. The *St. Lawrence River* is interrupted by many rapids, around which canals have been

built, so that in summer it is possible for ocean-going vessels to reach the upper end of Lake Superior or halfway across the continent. Thus, the *St. Lawrence River* and the *Great Lakes* together form the only natural water route into the interior of the country from the east, as the *Mississippi* does

from the south. (See Fig. 184.)

The divide between the *Great Lakes Basin* and the *Mississippi Basin* is in places very low. In fact, the divide between the *Chicago River*, flowing into Lake Michigan, and the *Des Plaines River*, flowing into the *Missis-*

sippi, is only about fifteen feet above the level of the lake. The low and short divides between adjoining streams were of great importance during the exploration of the interior of the continents, because they offered the easiest portages. In many cases towns were developed at these carry-

ing places, especially in the Eastern and Northern States of the *Mississippi Basin*. Later these natural highways became the routes of canals and railroads.

Climate. North of the Tropic of Cancer North America lies in the region of westerly



FIG. 181. *Crater Lake, high up in the Cascade Mountains. It lies in a great depression in the top of an ancient volcano. (See page 40.)*



FIG. 182. *The Water Gap of the Delaware River.*



winds during the winter, while in the summer the Heat Equator extends as far north as Arizona. (See Figs. 82 and 84.) The larger part of the continent, therefore, lies in the region where the climatic differences between summer and winter are great. Owing to its size and position, North America has the most strongly marked continental climate in the world except Eurasia.

The Western Coast. The most uniform conditions of temperature and moisture are found along the western coast, where the winds blowing in from the Pacific bring the warmth and moisture acquired from the ocean. (See Fig. 97.) On the mountain slopes bordering the coast north of central California the annual rainfall is very heavy, in some places more than a hundred inches. (See Fig. 97.) In summer when the westerly wind system has moved north but little rain falls in this region even on the high mountain peaks, but in winter the mountains receive abundant rainfall as far south as southern California. The westerly slopes of the mountains in the rainy region, being well watered, are covered with magnificent forests. (See Fig. 119.) The eastern slopes and the interior valleys are drier and more barren.

The Great Central Plain. The great interior plain of North America is extremely cold in winter and hot in summer. The outblowing winds of winter are so dry that this region receives but little moisture at that season, except in the southern Mississippi Valley. In the summer growing season, however, when the winds blow inland, it is fairly well watered. The heaviest rainfall is in the eastern and southern portions. The warmest portion of the plains region in summer is along the lower Missouri River, and the center of the extreme continental cold in winter is in Canada, in Alberta. (See Figs. 82 and 84.)

The Eastern Coast. The eastern coast of North America has the most rapid changes in

weather of any portion of the continent. In winter when a storm center is occupying the interior, the northeast winds, passing over the cold Arctic Current, usually bring snow, while the southeasterly winds, coming from over the warmer North Atlantic Drift, bring rain. Inasmuch as the storms usually move from the southwest to the northeast, they follow a path nearly parallel to the Appalachian Mountains, and thus the rainfall is evenly distributed and one side of the highland is not dry and the other wet, as is the case in the Cordilleran Highland. The cold northwesterly winds of winter after the passage of a storm often cause extremely low temperatures, so that once in every seven or eight years killing frosts may extend even into southern Florida.

The Gulf Coast. Along the Gulf Coast, especially west of the Mississippi River, there are well-marked monsoon winds with the change of season from winter to summer. The summer winds blowing in toward the Mississippi Valley come from the warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico and carry an abundance of moisture, a large part of which falls as heavy rain near the coast. (See Fig. 97.) As a result the region about New Orleans has the heaviest rainfall found in the United States, with the exception of that in Washington and Oregon. (See Fig. 97.)

The western part of Texas, which is out of the range of the Gulf winds, is very dry.

In Mexico and Central America, where the prevailing climate is that of the trade-wind region, the east coast is wet and the west coast dry, although in no case a desert. As the winds rise in passing over the eastern slopes they lose the larger part of their moisture, so that the high plateaus in northern Mexico are exceedingly dry.

Vegetation. Northern North America, including the island region of Arctic America as far south as the coast of Hudson Bay, and the coast of Labrador, is covered by



FIG. 184.

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perpetual ice or by the grassy *tundra*. (See Fig. 119.) This vast area is unoccupied except by a few Eskimos along the coast, or by wandering Indians who hunt here in the summer months.

South of this area is the broad region of coniferous trees, which includes northern New England and the region about the Great Lakes. (See Fig. 119.) Hemlock, spruce, fir, cedar, and white pine, all valuable as lumber or for paper pulp, are the principal coniferous trees. Coniferous trees also cover the mountain tops and western slopes of the Cordilleran Highland where the climatic conditions, because of the altitude, are similar to those found in the higher latitudes. (See Fig. 185.)

The region east of the Mississippi River is a forest and grassland, with the uncultivated areas occupied by either coniferous or deciduous trees. The southeastern coast from Norfolk to New Orleans contains many palms and other subtropical trees, including the long-leaf or hard pine, which furnishes valuable lumber.

This forest and grassland area gradually merges on the west into the open, grassy prairies or steppes of the Mississippi Valley. Between the 100th meridian and the foothills of the Rocky Mountains the steppes are more arid and trees are practically absent except along the water courses. Within this arid steppe region there are small desert areas, but the largest deserts of the United States lie between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada. Here the rainfall is

slight, as the winds have been robbed of their moisture in crossing the mountains lying to the west. This arid steppe region includes the plateau of Mexico. Central America is everywhere occupied by dense, subtropical forests or by savannas. These subtropical forests include many valuable timber trees, like rosewood and mahogany; also banana trees, rubber trees, and others that yield valuable commercial products.

Animals of North America. The characteristic wild animals of North America have

already been mentioned. (See page 74.) Many other animals not distinctive of North America are found in great numbers in the wild and unexplored regions. Great herds of elk exist in Canada, (see Fig. 137) and the grizzly, cinnamon, and black bear are common in the more rugged mountains of

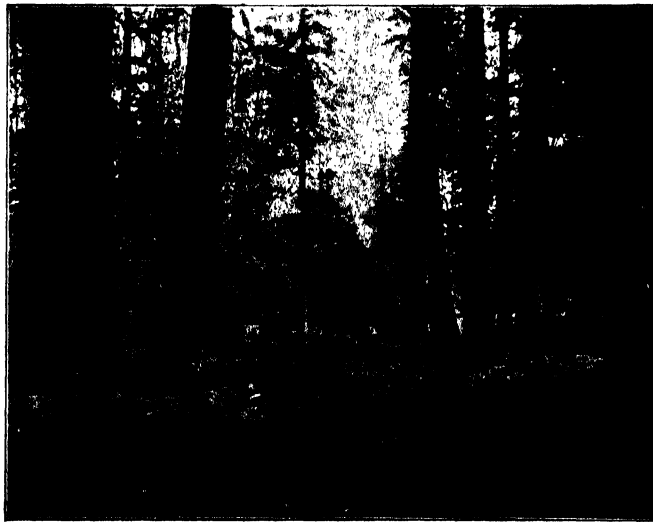


FIG. 185. A great cedar forest in the Sierra Nevada, in a deep valley north of the Yosemite, California.

the western highlands of the continent.

People. Except for the Eskimos of Alaska and northeastern North America, the whole continent was formerly occupied by Indians. These Indians were of many tribes, speaking different languages, and ranging in civilization from the true savages to the barbarous tribes who practiced agriculture to some extent. Now the Indians of North America are almost wholly restricted to the western and northern portions of the continent and to the mountains of Mexico and Central America. (See page 79 and Fig. 186.)

The larger portion of North America is occupied by descendants from the early colonists sent out by the European nations,

or by immigrants who have recently come from Europe. The population is most dense in the eastern portion of the United States, where the colonies established by the European nations were planted. English is spoken generally throughout the continent, although in some parts of Canada and Louisiana French is the prevailing language, and in Mexico and Central America, and for the most part in the West Indies, the people speak Spanish.

Within recent years there has been a great migration of people from Europe to America. Some of these immigrants have settled in the cities, but great numbers have made their homes in the extensive agricultural lands of western United States and southern Canada. Germans and Norwegians are very numerous in the northern states of the Mississippi Basin and the Irish and Jews are found in the larger cities.

In the southern Atlantic and Gulf states, in the West Indies, and in Central America where the warm climate makes it difficult to carry on continuous labor, there are great numbers of negroes, mostly descended from slaves brought from Africa to till the plantations. The early Spaniards who came to Mexico and Central America married with the Indians, and their descendants, known as Mexicans, are now the most powerful people in these regions.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Draw an outline map of North America. On it write the names of the great countries and draw their boundaries. (2) Write the names of the surrounding waters and chief islands and groups of islands. (3) What is the scale of the political map of North America? (4) Using this scale, find distance between New York and San Francisco; between Montreal and Vancouver.

(5) Trace the continental shelf. Where is it broadest? (6) What name is given to the broad shelf off Newfoundland? (7) For what industry are these waters noted? (8) Where are similar shores in Europe?

(9) Draw the chief rivers of North America. (10) What advantages result to this continent from having a great river system in its central portion? (11) Draw one transcontinental route. Compare the length of this route with that of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. (12) Compare the difficulties of building these routes.

(13) Why was the Central Plain not settled until after the Atlantic Coastal Plain? (14) Why did not the early explorers enter the Central Plain by way of the Mississippi? (15) Mention a continent which has no such pathway into the interior. (16) Calculate the difference in length between the route from Liverpool to Montreal, and from Liverpool to New York.

(17) Which is shorter? (18) What disadvantages has the northern route?

(19) Which coast of North America has the greatest range of temperature? The least range? (20) Compare the annual range of Winnipeg and Sitka; Winnipeg and Quebec. (21) Which sections

have an even climate? Why? (22) What sections have a continental climate? Why? (23) What is the annual range of temperature in your home locality? (24) Have you an oceanic or continental climate? (25) Account for the heavy rainfall of the west slope of the Cascade Mountains. (26) Why does the Columbia Plateau get so little? (27) Why does Winnipeg have less rain than New Orleans? (28) What winds bring rain to the Atlantic Coastal Plain? To Quebec? To Vancouver? (29) What winds bring rain to your home? (30) Why are the plateaus of Mexico dry?

(31) What is the average rainfall of the tundra region? The steppes? The region of coniferous trees? Deciduous trees? The subtropical areas? (32) Make a list of these regions; opposite each write its rainfall and characteristic vegetation. (33) In which vegetation region do you live? (34) How great is the rainfall at your home? (35) Write a description of your most common tree or plant and illustrate by a drawing.

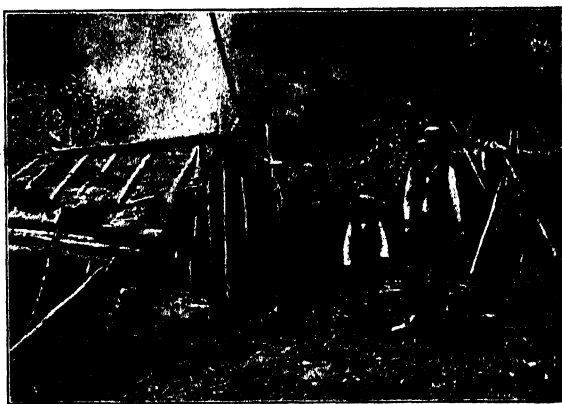


FIG. 186. Alaskan Indians and their home.

XXIV. THE UNITED STATES AS A WHOLE

Size and Extent. The United States, not including Alaska and the many dependencies, has an area of 3,026,789 square miles; that is, it is a little larger than the continent of Australia. Including Alaska, the Philippines, Hawaii, Porto Rico, and a few scattered islands in the Pacific Ocean, the area is 3,743,344 square miles, or nearly equal to that of all Europe. The United States

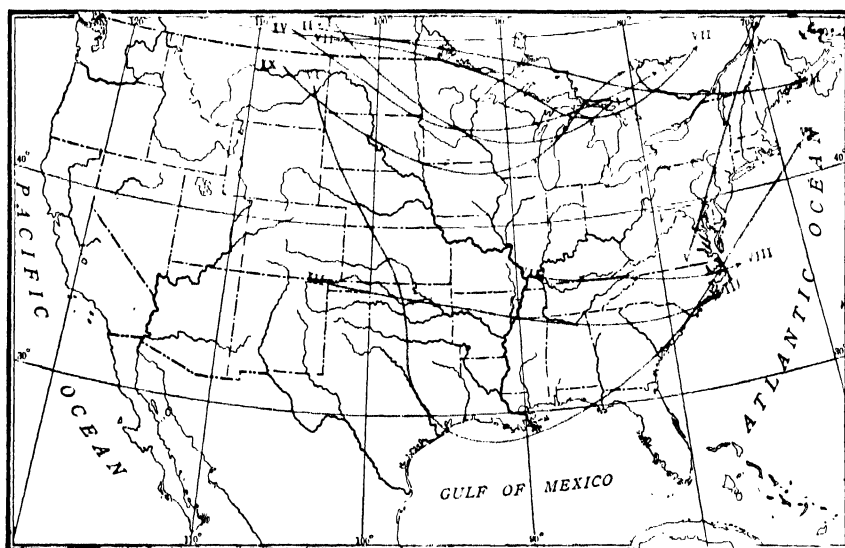


FIG. 187. Storm tracks of the United States, showing the direction in which the areas of low pressure move across the country.

extends from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. It therefore includes parts of all the great physical divisions of North America and has an extremely varied climate.

The crops that are raised in the different regions, the occupations that the people follow, and the distribution of the population depend very closely on the surface features and on the climate. Consequently we need to know something about the surface and the climate of the different sections of the country before we study the detailed geographic conditions in the several groups of states.

CLIMATE

The Climatic Regions. There are three great climatic regions in the United States: the *East Coastal and Gulf*, the *Interior*, and the *West Coastal*. Three similar divisions are found in Canada, but the climatic features there differ somewhat from those in our own country, which is situated farther south, and therefore is, in general, warmer than Canada.

The East Coastal and Gulf Region. This region includes all the area east of the Mississippi River. It is characterized by cool winters in the south except

near the Gulf, cold winters in the north, warm summers, and abundant rain through the year.

In winter, storms and clear weather follow one another across the continent in rapid succession and bring sudden and severe changes of weather to the eastern states. (See Fig. 187.) A change of temperature of fifty degrees or more may occur in twenty-four hours. As a result the ground is

sometimes so thawed in winter that vegetation may start, only to be frozen again in a few days. It is for this reason that the fruit along the Atlantic coast is frequently damaged so that the crops are small. The inblowing stormwinds carry moisture from the ocean which falls largely as snow in the northern portion and as rain in the southern.

In summer, along the whole Atlantic and Gulf coast, the prevailing winds blow from the ocean; they therefore carry moisture to the continent, so that nearly all the region east of the 100th meridian receives more rainfall at this season than during the winter months. This is an important fact in

determining the success of agriculture, because summer is the growing season for crops.

During the summer months the rainfall is particularly heavy along the southern Atlantic and Gulf coast. In parts of this region rain falls almost daily, and the climate is very similar to that of the wet season in Mexico. Along the northeastern coast the rain is evenly distributed through the year so that there is little difference between the winter and summer rainfall.

The summer temperatures throughout the eastern states are high, temperatures of over a hundred degrees frequently being reached in the heat of the day in many places during July and August. Owing to the relatively high temperatures of the summer and to the abundant moisture, both of which are favorable to the growth of agricultural products, the eastern portion of the country is the most densely populated and is a most important agricultural area, particularly for the raising of cereals, cotton, and rice.

The Interior Region. The great interior region lying between the Mississippi River and the Cordilleran Highland has a wide range of temperature from season to season, but the changes are not generally so sudden as they are along the eastern coast. In January the average temperature of St. Louis is the same as that of New York, *i. e.*, 30° Fahrenheit (see Fig. 82); but in the summer the temperature of St. Louis is more than ten degrees higher on the average than that of New York. The average summer temperatures of the middle Atlantic coast

here extend as far north as southern Canada. (See Fig. 84.)

The winters are cold and dry, with strong winds blowing out from the cold regions of Canada. These cold north winds, or *northerners*, are unimpeded by mountain ranges. In the spring months they often sweep suddenly southward, carrying unseasonable temperatures even into southern Texas, and doing great damage to vegetation.

The summers are fairly dry, with clear skies, thereby favoring the growth of cereals

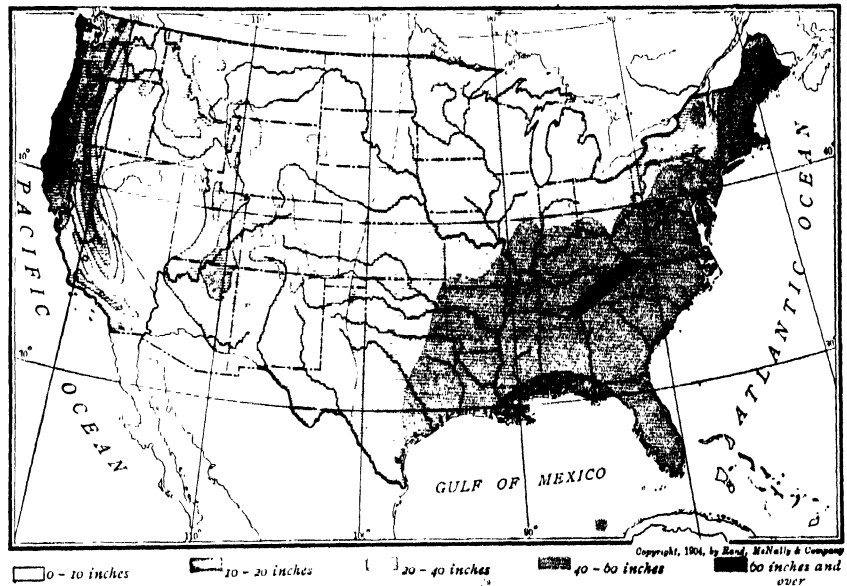


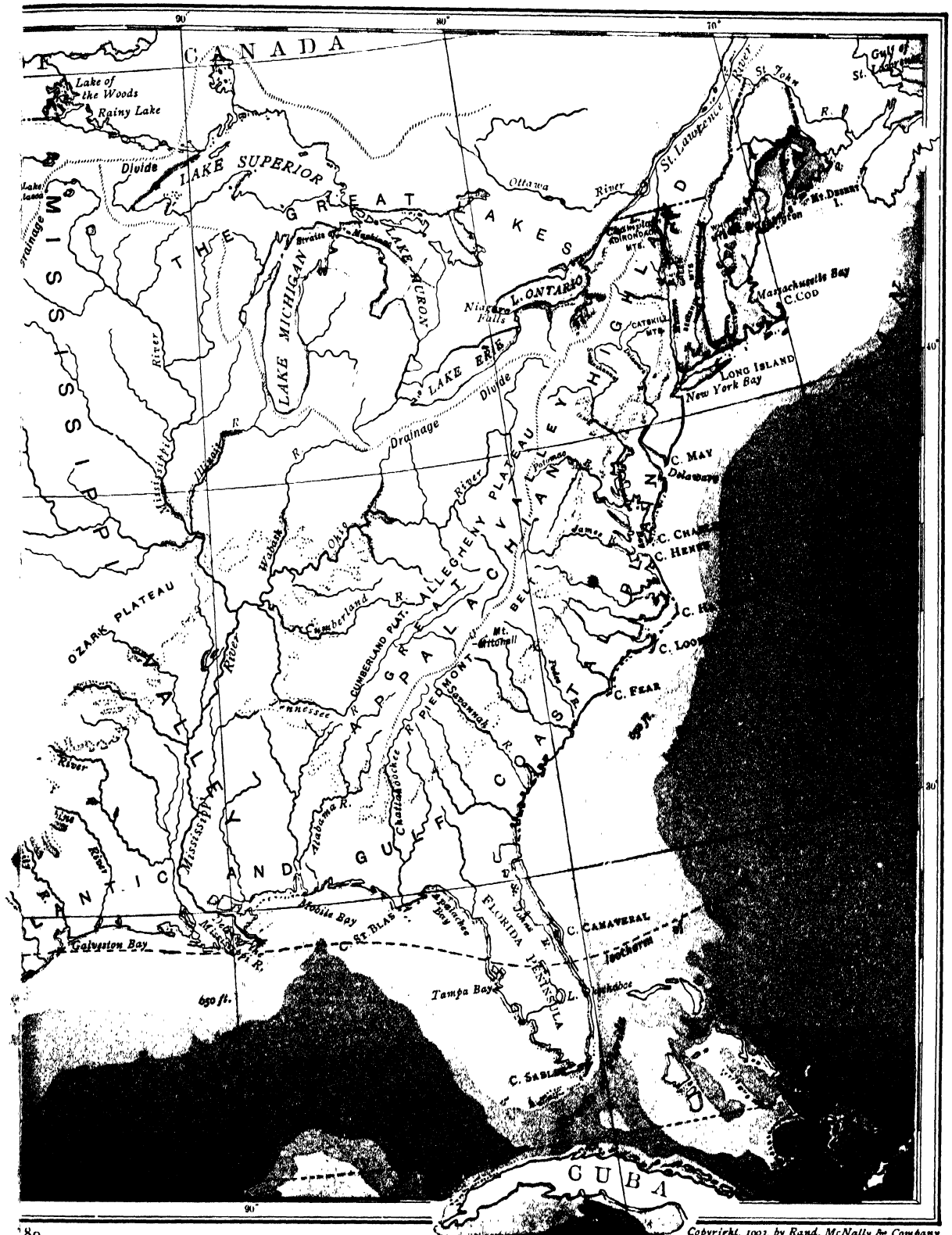
FIG. 188. A map showing the annual distribution of rainfall in the United States.

like wheat and corn, which require a rather high temperature with abundance of sunshine. To the westward the climate grows drier, so that west of about the 100th meridian agriculture is, as a rule, unsuccessful without irrigation. (See Fig. 190.)

The dryness of this region is due to two causes: to its distance from the ocean, so that it receives little moisture from the east and south winds; and also to the great Cordilleran Highland, which shuts it off from receiving much moisture from the Pacific. The great plains are therefore mostly a steppe area, in which grazing is the leading industry.



FIG. 1



The West Coastal Region. The climate of the west coast of the United States, including the western slopes of the Cordilleran Highland, is unusually even. At low altitudes there is but little change of temperature from month to month. The average winter temperature of San Francisco is as high as that of Charleston, South Carolina (see Fig. 82), and the coastal portion even south of San Francisco has a summer temperature like that of Ontario, New York, and New England. (See Fig. 84.)

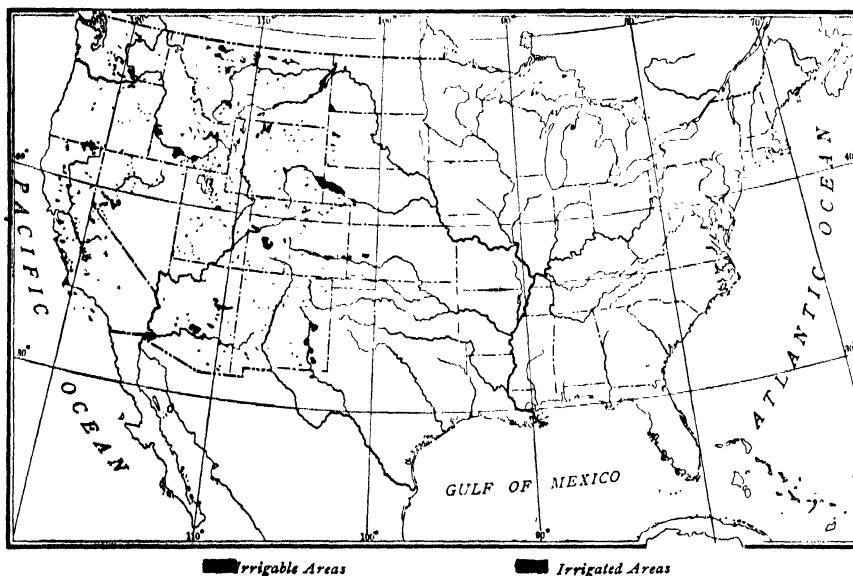


FIG. 190. Irrigated and irrigable lands in the United States.

Most of the rain throughout this region falls in winter, when the westerly wind area extends farthest south. In this season the rainfall of Washington, Oregon, and northern California is extremely heavy. (See Fig. 188.) The higher altitudes of this section have abundant moisture, and hence are clothed with heavy forests. But in summer even the mountain slopes are dry. Owing to the lack of summer rainfall, agriculture cannot be carried on in the larger part of this region except by means of irrigation.

The winter climate of southern California is delightful. Warm, fair weather prevails

day after day, and the temperature rarely approaches the freezing point. As a result this region has become a favorite resort for people who cannot stand the rigor of the eastern winter.

The interior valleys and the plateaus lying between the bordering walls of the Rockies on the one side and the Sierra Nevada and Cascade mountains on the other are extremely dry. In fact, in certain parts of this region the rainfall is less than five inches a year. (See Fig. 188.) Most of this great area

is therefore a desert or a steppe in which the population is sparse and scattered. Where irrigation is practiced towns and cities have grown up, but in Arizona, portions of New Mexico, southern Nevada, and eastern California extreme desert conditions prevail. The Mohave Desert, in southern California, is the driest region in the United States. (See Fig. 119.)

Questions and Exercises

- (1) On an outline map of the world color in blue the United States and its possessions. Write or print the names neatly.
- (2) On an outline map of the United States indicate its climatic regions; locate your home.
- (3) Locate on the map Boston, Charleston, Washington, New Orleans, St. Louis, St. Paul, Buffalo, Kansas City, Carson City, San Francisco, San Diego, Seattle.
- (4) Using two colors, draw arrows for the January and July winds of these towns.
- (5) Write their January and July temperatures and their average yearly rainfall.
- (6) Compare the climate of Boston and St. Paul, and of Washington and St. Louis, and account for the difference.
- (7) Write a similar comparison between the climate of San Francisco and Kansas City, or of San Francisco and Washington.
- (8) Why has Omaha less rain than Memphis? San Francisco than Seattle?
- (9) Why is

the rainfall of Vicksburg so heavy? (10) What portions of the United States are thinly peopled because of the aridity of the region? (11) Study the passage of a storm across the *Interior* and *East Coastal* divisions and account for the frequent winter thaws that occur there. (12) Account for a cold wave. (13) How would the presence of an east-west mountain range across these sections change the climate of the southern and southeastern states? (14) Compare the distribution of rainfall and population in the United States. (15) What similarity exists? (16) What influence has amount and distribution of rain had upon the density of population? (17) On the map used in Exercise 2 draw the one hundredth meridian. What is the chief industry to the east of this line? Why? (18) Locate the steppe area. (19) Locate two towns in this area. (20) Name and locate all the regions in the United States where the presence of a mountain barrier makes a difference in the rainfall of the two slopes.

(21) Which climatic division has an *oceanic* climate? (22) What are the characteristics of such a climate? (23) Why does the western coast have so cool a summer? (24) Draw a cross section of the windward and leeward slopes of the Sierra Nevada and show by colors the difference in the rainfall of these slopes; indicate also differences in vegetation. (25) Tell about the winter climate of southern California. (26) Locate the Mohave Desert and give reasons for aridity. (27) Which transcontinental routes pass through large desert areas?

(28) Write a composition about the climate of your home; tell how it affects your life.

XXV. THE UNITED STATES AS A WHOLE; PHYSICAL DIVISIONS

The United States contains several well-marked physical divisions, which vary greatly in their characteristics, and must be considered separately.

THE ATLANTIC AND GULF COASTAL PLAIN

Position. The Atlantic and Gulf Coastal Plain is a broad, flat, low-lying plain beginning at New York and extending southward throughout the Atlantic Coastal and the Gulf states. It includes the whole of Florida and Louisiana, the larger portion of Mississippi, and the alluvial plain of the Mississippi River south of the Ohio River. The Coastal Plain extends off shore in the great continental shelf. (See Fig. 173.)

Soil. The rocks forming the surface of the

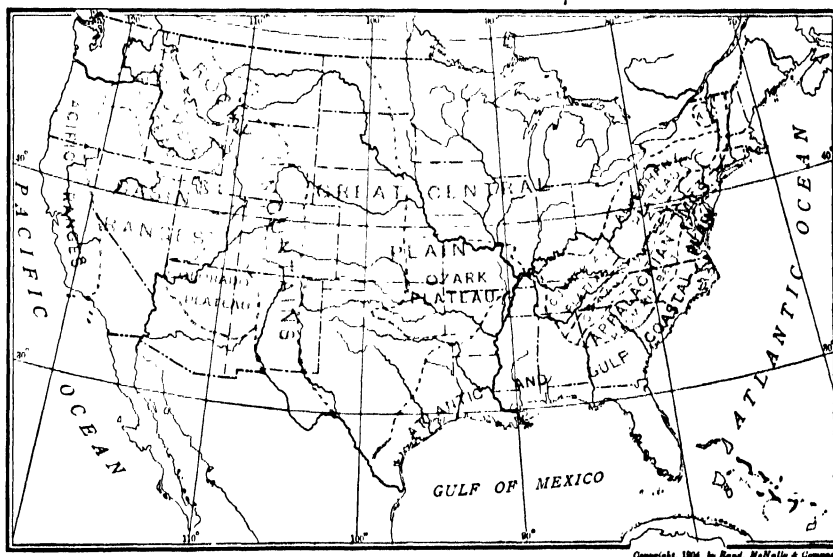


FIG. 191. *Physical divisions of the United States.*

plain are weak and unconsolidated. The soil is everywhere deep and is generally fertile, but its fertility depends upon the character of the underlying rock from which it has been formed. In some of the states, as in North and South Carolina, broad strips of barren soils occur. These areas are covered with forests, while the other soils are for the most part devoted to agriculture. The coastal portion of this area, in the Southern States of the Atlantic Coast, is made up of marshes which are devoted to the cultivation of rice.

Surface and Drainage; Coast Line. The valleys are generally narrow, steep-sided, and shallow, because the plain rises so little



FIG. 102.

above the level of the sea that the rivers cannot cut into it deeply. Nearly all the larger streams are navigable for some distance, so that the products of the surrounding areas can be readily shipped. The most important water routes are the great *Mississippi* and the drowned valleys forming the *Chesapeake* and the *Delaware* estuaries.

From New York to South Carolina the shore is bordered by a series of barrier beaches, which form popular summer and winter resorts. These beaches are broken by few inlets, and consequently the harbors are far apart. The coast line of the southern states is also extremely regular and therefore has few good harbors.

Transportation; Climate. Owing to the gentle slopes and the extensive level uplands lying between the narrow river valleys, railroads can be built with ease in every direction. The network of railways that has grown

up, together with the navigable rivers, makes it easy to ship the products of this area to market. The climate, as we have already seen, is moist and warm. Therefore agriculture flourishes throughout this region. The earliest colony in the United States was founded in the coastal plain of Virginia.

The Alluvial Plain. The Alluvial Plain of the Mississippi is an extensive area of rich, black alluvial soil bordering the Mississippi below the Ohio. (See Fig. 47.) The river throughout its lower course runs in a channel above the surrounding country, and is kept in

bounds by levees. Every few years, however, the great river breaks through its bounding levees in the late spring and floods enormous areas, causing great damage to life and property. The soil and the climate of the southern portion of this alluvial plain of the Mississippi River are particularly favorable to the production of sugar cane and cotton, so that this part of the country is extremely important agriculturally.

THE PIEDMONT BELT

Surface. From New York to central Alabama the Coastal Plain is bordered on the west by a rolling region underlaid by strong rocks like those which form the Appalachian Mountains. The surface is varied, in places rugged. The rivers run in young or in mature valleys, in which the slopes are often steep, so that water power is abundant. (See Figs. 191 and 193.)

The Fall Line. Where the streams pass from the stronger rocks of the Piedmont Belt to

the more gentle slopes formed in the weaker rocks of the Coastal Plain a series of rapids or falls occurs. This boundary line is commonly spoken of as the Fall Line. As the Fall Line marks in general the head of navigation on the rivers, and as it furnishes splendid water power, it provides town sites with great natural advantages.

The products of the agricultural areas of the Piedmont Belt and Coastal Plain can readily be transported to the Fall Line towns for manufacturing or for shipment. Thus in many cases conditions favorable to agriculture,

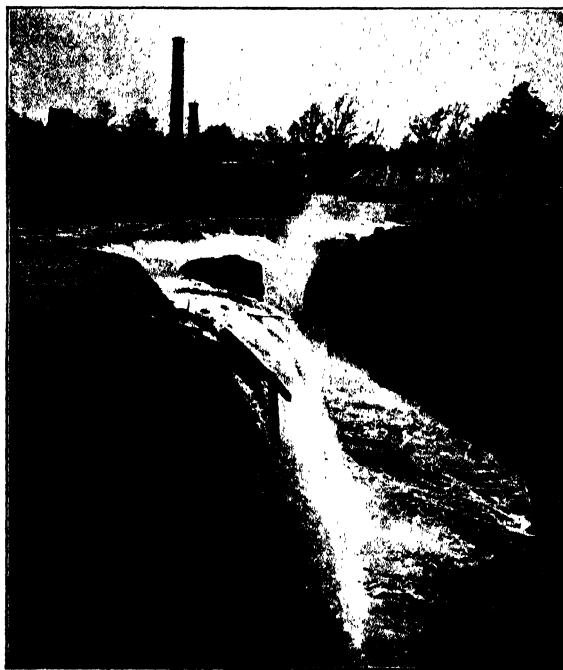


FIG. 193. The falls at Paterson, New Jersey, which furnish power for the extensive silk mills.

manufacturing, and commerce are found near the same spot. Hence the most favorably situated Fall Line towns rapidly became large cities, among which may be mentioned *Trenton*, N. J., *Philadelphia*, Pa., *Baltimore*, Md., *Washington*, D. C., *Richmond* and *Petersburg*, Va., *Raleigh*, N. C., *Columbia*, S. C., *Augusta* and *Macon*, Ga., and *Montgomery*, Ala.

Agriculture; Transportation. Owing to the altitude, the climate of the Piedmont Belt is a little colder than that of the Coastal Plain, but is everywhere sufficiently warm and moist for agriculture. This occupation therefore prevails throughout the area. The higher slopes are covered with forests, and the rocks contain some mineral wealth.

The slopes are not so steep but that railroads can be built with ease. Two of the principal lines connecting the northern ports with the agricultural southern states pass through the Piedmont Belt or along the western border of the Coastal Plain.

THE APPALACHIAN HIGHLAND

The Appalachian Highland, which runs from the St. Lawrence River to central Alabama, includes the whole of New England and parts of all the other States of the Atlantic Coast, as well as portions of West Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. This great highland area may be divided into three regions, the *Appalachian Mountains*, the *Great Valley*, and the *Plateaus*, in each of which the physical features vary strikingly from those in any other portion. (See Fig. 191.)

The Appalachian Mountains. The eastern part of the Appalachian Highland, known as the *Appalachian Mountains*, extends through the whole of New England and in a narrow belt from the Hudson River to Alabama. The highest peaks are in New Hampshire and in North Carolina. The Appalachian Mountains are made up of strong rocks; they increase in height and width to the southward. The slopes are steep and the surface is generally rugged.

In the north where the rivers cross the highland in water gaps, the boundary between the States of the Atlantic Coast and of the interior was drawn west of the Appalachian Mountains.

Throughout the southern states, that is from central Virginia to Alabama, the mountains are so rugged and unbroken that they offer little opportunity for railroads, and thus have always been a barrier to trade and travel. The southern mountains form a divide between the rivers that flow into the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, and

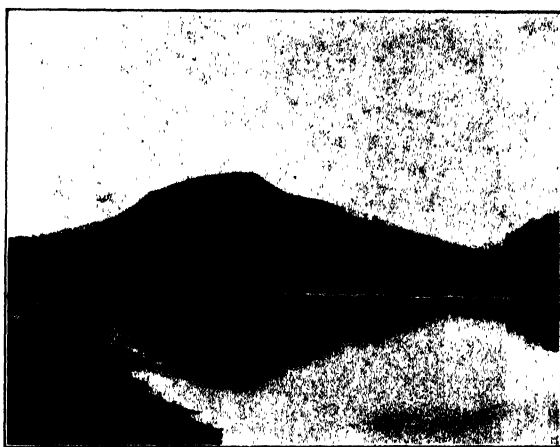


FIG. 194. Lookout Mountain, Tennessee.

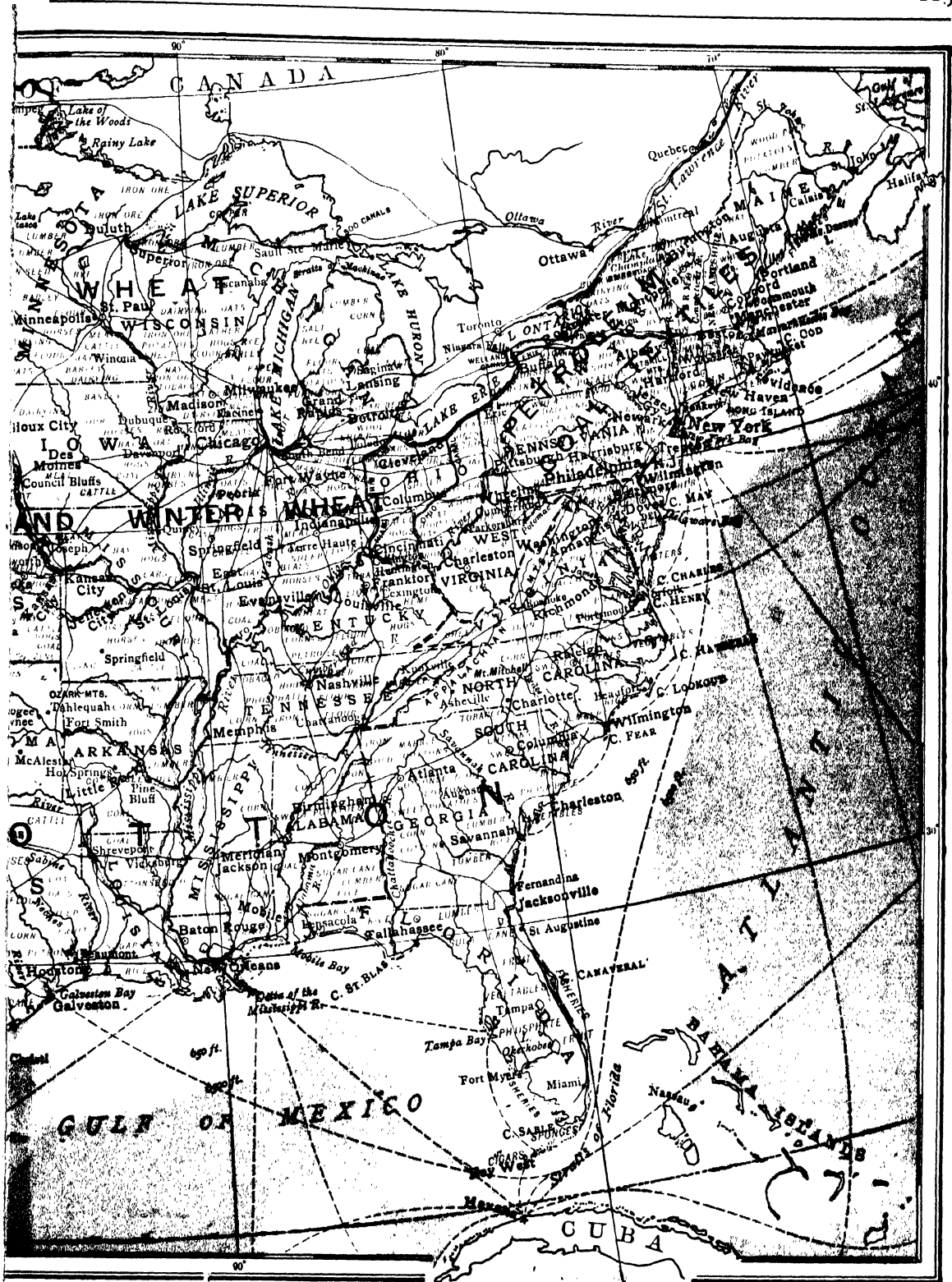
are the natural boundary between North Carolina and Tennessee. (See Fig. 194.)

Agriculture is possible only in the lowlands and on the more gentle slopes, so that the population is scattered, and large parts of the region are left in forest. Hardwood trees are found in the south and coniferous trees particularly in the north. The mountain rocks contain some valuable minerals, but they are not worked to any extent.

The Great Valley. Just west of the Appalachian Mountains is a long, narrow depression of weak rocks, known as the *Great Valley*. This region, extending from the St. Lawrence River to Alabama, is bounded by the steep slopes of the Appalachians on the east and by the eastern rim of the Allegheny



FIG.



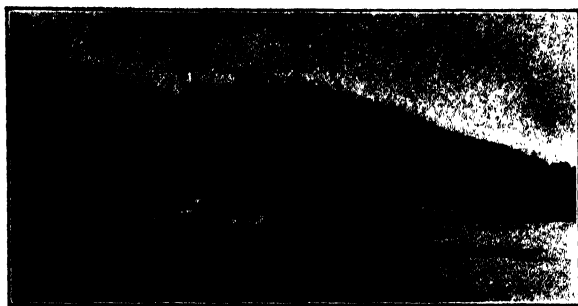


FIG. 196. Scene at a coal mine in West Virginia.

and Cumberland plateaus on the west. The Great Valley includes a series of parallel ridges rising above its general level. Between the ridges are narrow, fertile valleys. In the northern portion of the valley the ridges are on the west side, while in the south they are on the east. Hence in the north the Great Valley could be reached by explorers and settlers from the east without the necessity of traversing the narrow valleys of the ridges. In the south the ridges for a long time seriously retarded exploration from the east. The Great Valley contains many rivers which flow along it for a distance and then break through the eastern highland or western plateaus in water gaps, thus making the fertile valley accessible to trade and travel, especially from the east.

Lake Champlain and the upper portions of the Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, James, and Tennessee rivers lie in this region. The valleys bordering the headwaters of these rivers are famous for their richness. This is particularly true of the Lebanon Valley in Pennsylvania, of the Shenandoah Valley in Virginia, and of the Tennessee Valley in Tennessee.

This great depression, extending from the St. Lawrence to Alabama, forms a natural highway for trade and travel between the northeastern and southwestern portions of the United States. In it have therefore grown up a number of important cities, of which *Chattanooga* and *Knoxville, Tenn.*, are good illustrations.

The Plateaus. The Great Valley is bordered on the west, from New York to Alabama, by a great upland composed of the *Allegheny* and *Cumberland plateaus*. (See Fig. 191.) In the south the plateau rises to an elevation of about 2,000 feet, is but little cut by rivers, and faces the Great Valley in an almost continuous cliff of nearly a thousand feet in height. Hence the region is accessible with difficulty, the railroads are few, the population is scattered, and the country still retains most of its forest cover.

Deep under the ground are buried extensive coal deposits, which are available only where the surface rock has been removed, or where rivers have cut gorges so that the coal is exposed on the valley sides. Such is the case in Pennsylvania and in West Virginia, where the plateau is cut into by river valleys, so that the underlying coal is readily secured. (See Fig. 196.) Pennsylvania and West Virginia are therefore the great coal-producing areas of the eastern states. Owing to the existence of coal and of iron in Pennsylvania, manufacturing has grown up in this section of the country just as it has in similar places in the British Isles, in France, and in Germany. Several large cities like *Pittsburgh, Pa.* (see Fig. 228), *Cleveland, Ohio*, and *Wheeling, W. Va.*, have therefore developed in the northern plateau area.

In certain portions of the region the valleys are so numerous that the surface is very rugged, and cross-country traveling difficult.

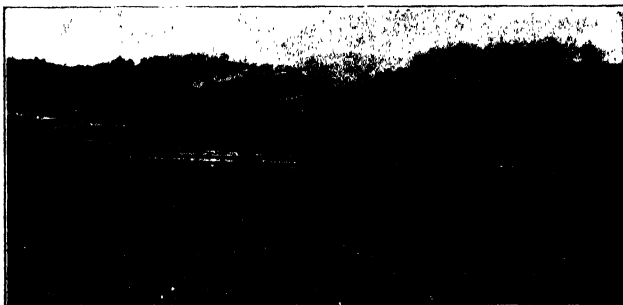


FIG. 197. Rolling glacial hills of central New York, devoted to farming.

The slopes are well wooded, and the population is scattered except along the river valleys and in the mining regions. The northeastern limit of this plateau, known as the Catskill Mountains, faces the Hudson River Valley in a high, cliff-like front.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) In which physical division of the United States do you live? (2) What features mentioned in the description of this section have you seen? (3) Make a list of the states wholly or partly in this section. (4) Opposite each state write the names of the rivers, and opposite each river a town on that river. (5) Trace the continental shelf. Along which states is it broadest? Narrowest? (6) Which states have good harbors? Name the harbors.
- (7) In what states is the alluvial plain of the Mississippi? (8) How wide is this plain in portions? (9) Why is it so fertile? (10) How do you account for the fact that the Mississippi runs in a channel above the surrounding country? (11) How do the people protect their lives and property from this river? (12) Why do people live near so dangerous a river? (13) Why are the cities in this plain located on the bluffs? Name such cities. (14) Have you ever seen *alluvial* soil? Tell about it.
- (15) What rivers cross the Fall Line? (16) Locate each of the cities on the Fall Line mentioned in the text and tell what river each is on. (17) Why have large towns grown up at these points? (18) What does the word *Piedmont* mean?
- (19) Name all the divisions of the Appalachian Highland and tell in what states each division is found. (20) What is the highest peak in New Hampshire? In North Carolina? (21) What do you know about the Green Mountains, the Adirondacks, the Blue Ridge? (22) Describe a journey from Baltimore to Atlanta. What states would you pass through? What rivers would you cross? Describe the surface, and name the crops you would see in the fields. (Consult Figs. 189, 192, 195.) (23) What railroads cross the mountains in the north?

XXVI. THE UNITED STATES AS A WHOLE; PHYSICAL DIVISIONS (Continued)

THE GREAT CENTRAL PLAIN

The Highlands. The central portion of the United States, known as the *Great Central Plain*, extending from the Allegheny Plateau to the Rocky Mountains, is broken by few elevations of importance. A considerable highland area, composed of the *Ozark Plateau* (see Fig. 191) and the *Ouachita Mountains*, takes up much of Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas.

Bordering Lake Superior in Michigan and Minnesota there is an extensive glaciated upland of strong rocks like those of the Appalachians, which contains very valuable iron and copper deposits. The copper deposits are found deep underground, and are extensively

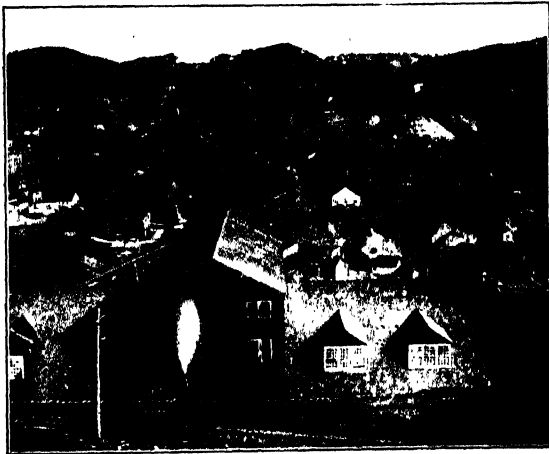


FIG. 198. A great mine at Lead, South Dakota.

mined. The iron deposits are near the surface, and in some places are secured with difficulty, owing to the extensive swamp areas formed in the glacial lakes.

The only other elevation of note in the Great Central Plain is the *Black Hills* in South Dakota and Wyoming. These hills rise as rugged, picturesque mountains, sharply contrasted with the level area round about. They contain extensive gold and silver deposits. (See Fig. 198.)

The Prairies and Plains. The Great Central Plain is in some places as level as a floor, in others rolling. (See Fig. 199.) In the western portion, where the altitude is greater, it is deeply cut by river valleys, so that the rolling *swells* of the plain are best seen from

the divides. The eastern portion of this region, lying in the humid area and commonly known as the *prairies*, is a great natural grassland in which agriculture flourishes. In fact the prairies are the great food-producing region of the United States. The western semi-arid section which is devoted primarily to grazing, is commonly known as the *plains*.

Owing to the even surface of the prairies, railroads have been built in almost every direction, until now the whole region is covered with a network of railroad lines. The excellent facilities for land transportation and the magnificent water routes furnished by the Great Lakes and by the Mississippi enable the products to be sent to market with ease. Hence this region has rapidly become wealthy and is the seat of many large cities noted for their trade and manufactures.

THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS

Position; Surface.

The Rocky Mountains, as we have seen, are the high mountain wall bordering the Great Central Plain on the west. The surface is rugged, the slopes are steep and long, and the passes are high. Yet, though the Rocky Mountains do not offer many opportunities for travel, they were, during the time of the exploration of the West, by no means so difficult a barrier as the arid plains to the east and the deserts of the west.

Climate; Industries. The climate is cold and moist, with the heaviest rainfall on the western slopes. The rocks contain silver and other metals in abundance, so that mining is the chief industry. Grazing is the only other occupation of importance, though lumbering is carried on in some regions.

Population; Scenery.

Large cities have grown up about the mining

centers. Elsewhere the population is found mostly in the occasional mountain valleys, especially in the high, level "parks" of Colorado and New Mexico. (See Fig. 200.) In the less populated regions wild animals, like bears and mountain sheep, are numerous, so that portions of the area are favorite resorts for sportsmen.

The *Yellowstone National Park*, famous for its hot springs and geysers, lies in the Rocky Mountain region. It is very picturesque, and

is much visited by tourists from all parts of the world.

THE COLUMBIA AND THE COLORADO PLATEAUS

The Columbia Plateau. In Washington, Oregon, and Idaho, bordering the Columbia River, is a great plateau area underlaid by volcanic rocks and known as the *Columbia Plateau*. The Columbia

and its tributary, the Snake, have cut magnificent canyons into this region, so that the scenery in places is strikingly beautiful. The climate is everywhere dry, and

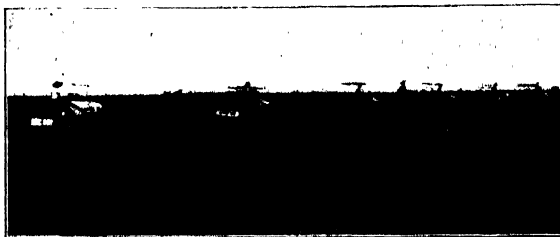


FIG. 199. Reaping wheat in the great level fields of North Dakota.

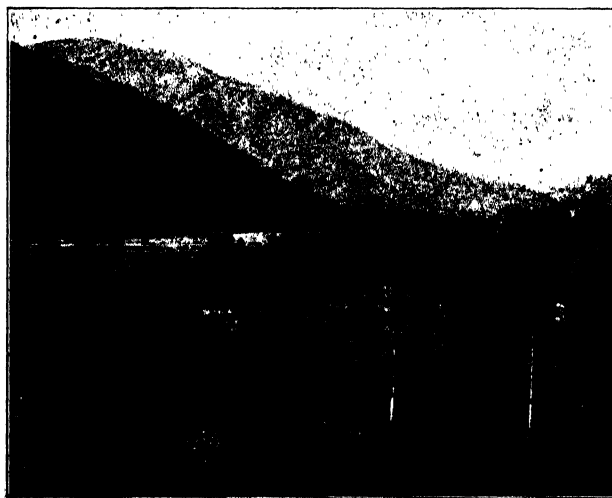


FIG. 200. A high, level "park" in Colorado. The valley has been partially filled by the detritus from the mountain sides.

agriculture is unimportant and very limited, except for wheat raising, which is carried on extensively in eastern Washington and Oregon.

The Colorado Plateau. The most famous and best known plateau area of the western United States is in Colorado, Utah, northern Arizona, and northwestern New Mexico. This highland, known as the *Colorado Plateau*, ranges in altitude from 6,000 to nearly 10,000 feet. Its upper levels are forest-covered. It is occupied only by scattered white people and nomadic Indians.

The Grand Canyon. The *Grand Canyon of the Colorado*, the most wonderful river valley in the world, is noted for its scenery, especially in Arizona, where it is deepest. (See Fig. 201.) This great river valley is so broad and deep that it cannot be bridged, and consequently it offers a great barrier to trade and travel.

THE BASIN RANGE AREA

Position; Surface. Lying south of the Columbia Plateau, east of the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade ranges, and extending to the Mexican line, is the region commonly known as the *Basin Range Area*. A large portion of the region was once covered by lakes, which have now disappeared and left their floors covered with a deep alluvial soil. Short, isolated, more or less parallel mountain ranges rise abruptly above the level plains of this region, giving it, in places, a mountainous appearance. (See Fig. 189.) The

contrast in surface, as one passes from the Colorado Plateau region into the Basin Range Area, is very striking.

Drainage. This Basin Range region (see Fig. 191) is everywhere arid, and the larger portion of Utah and Nevada has no drainage to the ocean. The southern portion is drained by the Colorado and its tributaries. The few rivers flowing down the slopes of the ranges either dwindle away in the drier, lower lands or flow into small interior basins.

As the waters evaporate they leave behind the common salt and other substances which they have dissolved from the land. Thus the lakes have become extremely salt as the ages have gone on, like the seas of southwestern Asia. The largest lake in the Basin Range Area is Great Salt Lake. The water of this lake is so



FIG. 201. The Colorado Canyon from below. Note the great peaks which have resisted the action of the air and the water.

heavy because of the salt it contains that one can float in it almost like a cork.

Population; Soil. The Basin Range Area, owing to its general aridity, has a very scattered population. Its few large cities are built in the midst of fertile irrigated spots because of the possible agriculture, and near the valleys leading into the eastern mountains because these valleys offer the only direct trade routes between the Plateau States and the East.

The soil is everywhere very rich, and were water available, this area would make a magnificent agricultural region producing cereals and fruits. Grazing and agriculture are now the leading industries.

THE PACIFIC RANGES

The Valleys. The surface, climate, and vegetation of the Pacific Ranges have already been described. Lying between the ranges are the California Valley, occupied by the San Joaquin and Sacramento rivers, and the Valley of Washington, a lowland depression extending south from Puget Sound into northern Oregon. These valleys are well watered by the streams flowing out from the mountain slopes, and hence are important for their agriculture, especially where irrigation is used.

Surface. The Pacific Range region contains many high peaks and abounds in magnificent scenery. (See Fig. 202.) It lies so close to the sea that there is no coastal plain available for occupation between the highland and the sea, as there is between the Appalachian Highland and the Atlantic. This region, widely separated from the older eastern states, had but a very small white population until after the discovery of gold in California in 1849.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Name the states and parts of states included in the prairies; in the plains. (2) From the commercial map make a list of the products of this area and state the distribution of each. (3) On an outline map of the United States locate the chief railroad centers and draw the chief land and water routes by which the products are shipped to market.

(4) Account for the paths of the railroads in the western portion of the Great Central Plain. (5) Can you explain the scarcity of railroads in Arizona and New Mexico? (6) Describe the path followed by a railroad from Seattle to San Francisco.

(7) Why would an immigrant train in the early days have had more dangers to fear cross-

ing the plains than the Rockies? (8) Find out about some famous explorers who followed the river courses of the northern portion of the Great Central Plain. What were they seeking? (9) Why did many people in the early days of our western country go to California by water, around Cape Horn, rather than overland? (10) Where is population centered in the Rockies? (11) Name and locate these cities and tell why towns have grown up there. (12) What river valleys do the railroads across the plains follow? (13) Do they follow river valleys across the mountains? Give the reason. (14) How many transcontinental routes cross the Rockies? (15) Trace them on the map. (16) Locate the chief "parks" of Colorado; Yellowstone National Park. (17) What rivers rise in and near Yellowstone National Park? (18) To what oceans do they flow? (19) What grand scenery in the Rockies would you like to see? (20) Locate



FIG. 202. Mount Hood, Oregon, one of the highest and most majestic peaks of the Pacific states.

four mountain peaks in Colorado. (21) Trace the continental divide. Through what states does it pass? (22) What rivers flow through it? (23) How do the Rocky Mountains differ from the Appalachian Mountains?

(24) Which of these plateaus is of greater importance to the people of the United States? Give the reason. (25)

Explain how the Colorado Canyon has been made. (26) How deep is it? (27) How wide at the top? (28) Which is more thickly populated, the Columbia or the Colorado Plateau?

(29) Draw a cross section from the Pacific to the plains and show the Coast Range, California Valley, Sierra Nevada, Basin Area, Rockies, and Great Plains. (30) Which sections are the highest? (31) Why is the section between the Sierra Nevada and Rockies called a *basin*? (32) Why are the lakes in it salt? (33) Why do some of the rivers disappear before they reach lakes? (34) Describe the surface of Nevada. (35) Where is the population centered? Why? (36) What part of the Great Basin has been made into a garden by successful irrigation?

(37) Draw a map of the California Valley and its surroundings. (38) What part of the valley is filled with water? (39) State the importance of this drowned valley. (40) Explain why the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers receive more branches from the east than from the west.

XXVII. NEW ENGLAND

STATE	Abbrevia- tion	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
Maine.....	Me.....	33,040	742,371	Portland.....	58,571	Augusta
New Hampshire.....	N. H....	9,341	430,572	Manchester...	70,063	Concord
Vermont.....	Vt.....	9,564	355,956	Burlington....	20,468	Montpelier
Massachusetts.....	Mass....	8,266	3,366,416	Boston.....	670,585	Boston
Rhode Island.....	R. I....	1,248	542,610	Providence...	224,326	Providence
Connecticut.....	Conn...	4,965	1,114,756	New Haven...	133,605	Hartford

The six states which make up New England are together about one-fourth the size of Texas, and have a population of a little over six and a half millions. This is a little less than the combined population of New York and Chicago, the two largest cities in the United States. The population of New England is centered largely about the cities in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Rhode Island and Massachusetts are the most densely populated states in the Union.

Surface. New England is almost entirely made up of strong rocks like those forming the Appalachian Mountains. It has a diversified surface, but along the coast it is generally low, especially in the three southern states. Farther from the ocean the altitude is greater, so that a large part of New England is an upland. This upland was once a peneplain; that is, it was worn down by the action of the atmosphere and the rivers almost to the level of the sea. Later it was

elevated to its present position, and the lowland became an upland. Into this upland the streams have cut narrow valleys, deeper in their upper courses than near the sea,

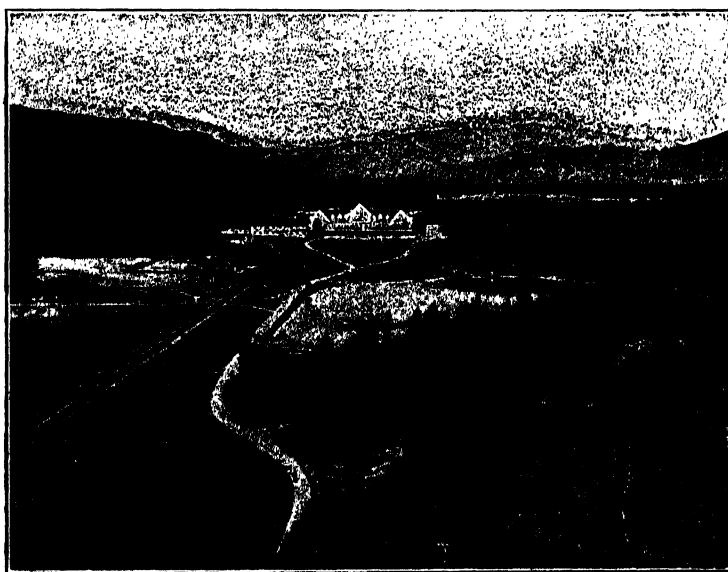
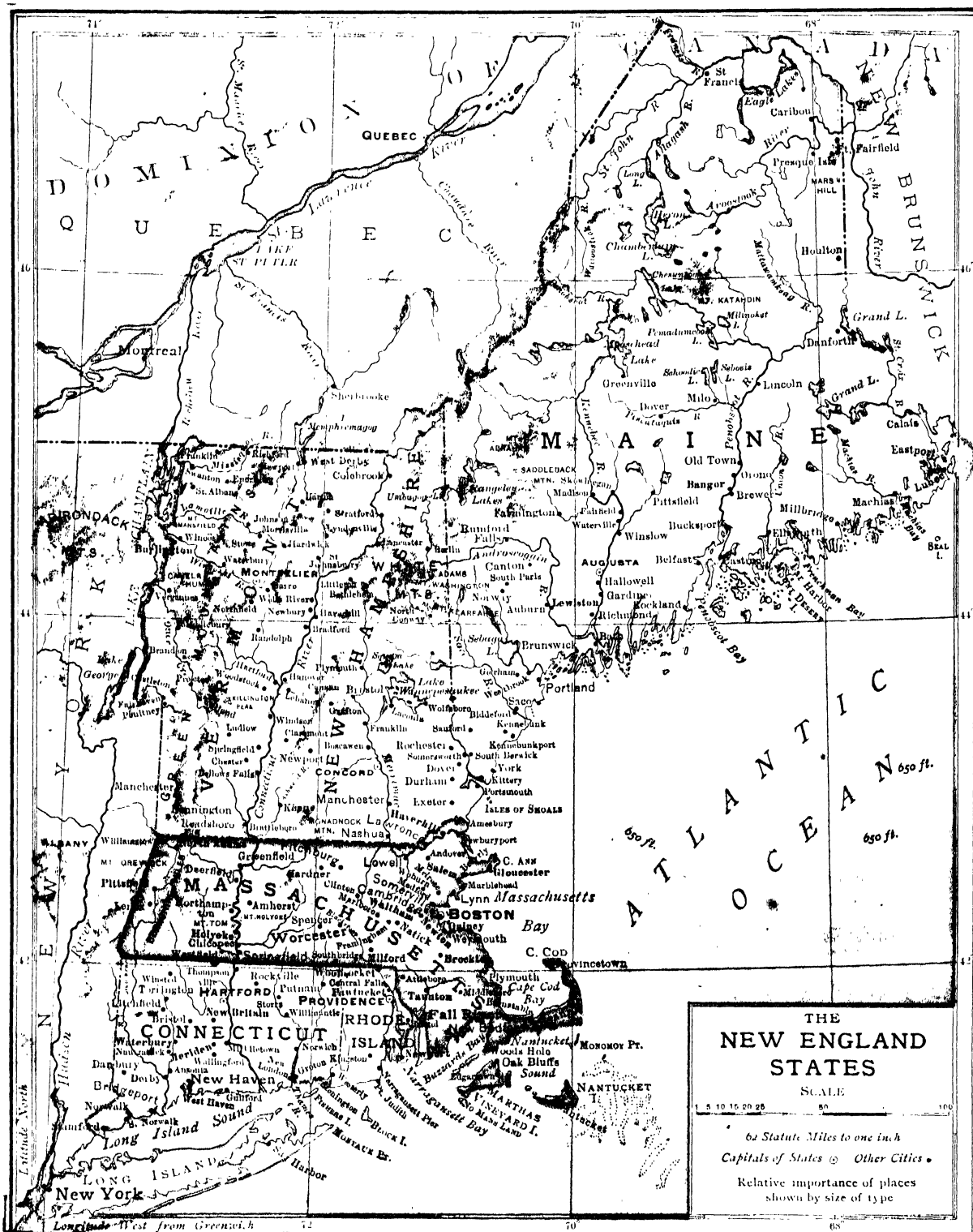


FIG. 203. In the region of the White Mountains.

because of the increased altitude farther from the coast. From the hill-tops the even peneplain surface may be seen extending in every direction, while occasional isolated peaks or groups of peaks rise above it as monadnocks. Monadnock Mountain,

Mount Greylock, the White Mountains, and many other peaks are excellent illustrations of such monadnocks. (See Fig. 203.) From the valleys these peaks seem majestic and lofty, but from the upland they appear only as slight elevations above the general level.

The strong rock ridges of New England are more or less parallel to one another and run in a general northeast-southwest direction, being parallel to the general trend of the Appalachians, with which they are connected. Hence the lowlands which have been worn into the weaker rocks are also



parallel. This is well illustrated along the coast of Maine where the mountain ridges have been drowned. The coast line is extremely irregular and consists of a series of narrow inlets with low ridges between. The numerous small harbors afford protection to fishermen, while the narrow ridges furnish land for homes and small farms. The offshore islands are the partially-drowned outer peaks of the mountain ridges which form the peninsulas.

Soils. The whole of New England, even to the very tops of the higher mountains, was covered by the glacier which once spread over northern North America. (See Fig. 180.) The soils which formerly existed on the upland were largely removed and deposited irregularly in the lowland valleys. Since the melting of the ice sheet there has not been sufficient time for deep soils to form again on the uplands. For this reason these regions are unfavorable for agriculture, sparsely populated, and largely given up to forests or pastures. The uplands in the northern states contain many farms which have been abandoned because agriculture has failed. These farms are now being bought up as summer residences by people from the large cities, or by those who desire to devote their attention to grazing and poultry raising rather than to agriculture. The soils in the river valleys are deep and generally rich, and devoted principally to agriculture.

Along the southern and southeastern shore, particularly in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, the glacier deposited great areas of sand, so that these regions are not so fertile as the river valleys.

The glacial soils are naturally fertile when they are not sandy. They cannot always be profitably used for agriculture, however, because of the large boulders of strong rock which were plucked from the highlands and scattered so thickly over the surface as to make it difficult to till the ground. (See

Fig. 206.) In certain regions these boulders have been made into stone fences or built into house walls. There are still enough of them just under-ground, however, to make it difficult to plow or harrow.

Drainage. The rivers of New England are short and navigable for only a few miles inland. Hence they have never been of great importance in commerce, except in their lower portions. The early explorers who followed the lines of the larger rivers in the hope of finding a highway to the fur-producing regions, soon discovered that these rivers gave them no access to that country. Hence their headwaters were not explored thoroughly, and no forts or trading stores were established here as along the larger rivers farther west.

At the head of navigation on the several large rivers cities have grown up. The most important of these are *Hartford* and *Norwich*, Conn., *Haverhill*, Mass., and *Lewiston*, *Augusta*, and *Bangor*, Me. The last three towns have depended largely for their growth upon the fact that the rivers on which they are situated flow through the lumbering country. They have long been the natural outlets for lumber.

The rivers of New England derive their importance from their value in manufacturing. The great glacier deposited its detritus irregularly in the valleys so that many natural dams were formed, at which the rivers now have falls. These falls furnish excellent water power, and the larger ones were early the centers about which towns sprang up. Although the water power is not sufficient for all the manufacturing and is supplemented in most of the large centers by steam power, yet about one-third of the manufacturing in this group of states is still done by water power. It is natural therefore to find many important manufacturing towns located on the rivers. *Biddeford*, Me., *Haverhill*, *Lawrence*, and

Lowell, Mass., and Woonsocket, R. I., are examples of such towns.

The glacier also left many depressions in which the water accumulated as lakes. From almost any high peak numerous lakes can be seen dotting the landscape and adding to its beauty. Some of these are used as reservoirs for the water supply of large cities; others, like Winnepesaukee and Sebago, have become popular summer resorts. Thousands of others have filled with detritus and vegetation and become swamps or farming land.

Scenery. Certain parts of New England are famous for their beauty. The White Mountains in New Hampshire, the Green Mountains in Vermont, and the scattered mountain peaks of Maine, Massachusetts, and northwestern Connecticut all rise sharply and

in many cases majestically above the upland. Because of their altitude and summer climate, they form favorite resorts for tourists and summer visitors. The beaches, and indeed the whole shore front along the southern coast of New England, are thickly dotted with summer cottages. The scenery of New England is nowhere so grand as that of the western mountain states, but it is extremely beautiful. (See Figs. 176 and 177.)

The northern portion of the three northern states, with their glacial lakes connected by streams and their dense forests in which game abounds, is much sought by sportsmen in the summer months. Here, as in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, travel in the forests is still largely by canoe, as it was

when the Indians occupied the region. The effect of the glaciation has been to make many long stretches in which the water moves slowly, so that canoeing, even against the current, is not difficult. The divide between one stream and another is low and narrow; thus canoes and camp equipment can be readily carried across the portage places.

Climate. New England, from its position in the northeastern part of the United States, has cold winters and warm summers. The coldest portions are, of course, in northern Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. In

this region the snowfall is abundant. The lakes, rivers, and swamps are frozen in winter, so that people can readily move through the forests and over the land and water by means of sleds or snowshoes.

At this season,

therefore, lumbering is carried on, and the logs are drawn to the river banks to be floated down the streams at the time of the spring floods. During the winter the farmers throughout New England go into the forests, cut their year's wood supply, and draw it home over the snow.

The lakes and rivers are often frozen to a depth of two feet or more, and hence furnish an abundant supply of ice which is cut in large quantities and shipped to the cities along the Atlantic coast. But during the last few years this industry has declined, owing to the more general use of artificial ice which is frozen by means of ammonia. In many parts of New England the farmers cut ice in the neighboring streams and ponds



FIG. 205. A fisherman's house on the coast of Massachusetts.

for use in summer in their households and dairies.

The rainfall in New England is more evenly distributed throughout the year than in any other part of the United States. As a result there is very little damage from drought in the summer months; the ground is so full of water that the wells rarely become dry, except in an unusual season, and the streams ordinarily furnish sufficient water to enable the mills to run throughout the year.

Occupations. Owing to the position of New England on the seacoast, to its abundant water power, favorable climate, and diversified surface, the people are engaged in many different occupations. More than one-half of them are employed in manufacturing, and about one-eighth in agriculture. Fishing, lumbering, and quarrying are also important in certain regions where the conditions are favorable to their development. (See Fig. 205.)

Agriculture and Dairying. Owing to the varied surface and the difficulty of tilling a large area except at great cost, New England farms are generally small. The average size in all of the states except Vermont is not far from a hundred acres; in Vermont it is nearly one hundred and fifty acres. On almost any farm the surface is so irregular that different crops have to be planted in different parts and hand labor has to be employed more exten-

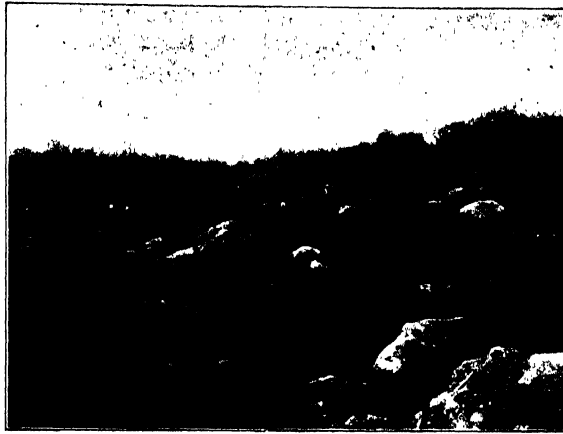


FIG. 206. A rocky pasture in New England.

sively than in the farms of the West where the level prairies can be readily tilled and the crops harvested by machinery. The most productive farms of New England are in the river valleys and on the coastal lowland. They are devoted principally to the raising of vegetables and small fruits,

and to the furnishing of milk, butter, eggs, and poultry for sale in the neighboring manufacturing cities and towns.

The New England States, however, do not lead in the production of any of the important agricultural products, but Massachusetts is one of the few states of the Union in which onions are raised in large quantities, and Connecticut is one of the most important of the northern states in the production of tobacco. Potatoes are raised in large quantities in northern Maine and in Massachusetts. Hay and oats are leading crops in the cool climate and on the steeper slopes of Vermont and Maine (see Fig. 207), and more than half the cranberries of the United States are produced in the swamps of the sandy southeastern portion of Massachusetts.

In spite of the large number of people devoted to agriculture, the number engaged in manufacturing is so much greater that not enough food is raised in New England for the use of the people. Large quantities of cereals and meat have to be imported from the western states.



FIG. 207. Haying on a New England farm.

Forest Products. The forest products of northern New England are important, but no one of these states takes first rank in lumbering. The heavy snowfall gives easy access to the timber regions in winter, and so floods the rivers in spring that the logs can be readily floated to the sawmills in the lower valleys. (See Fig. 208.) The trees are cut either for use as lumber or for paper making. The chief timber-producing trees are the white pine and the hemlock, valuable in house building; the spruce, much used in paper making, and certain of the hard woods, especially oak, used in the manufacture of woodenware. The timber product of Maine is coming to be more and more devoted to the making of paper, and New England, to a considerable extent, is dependent for its lumber upon the forests of the western states. The logs are largely changed into finished lumber in those cities which have abundant water power and are situated at the head of navigation. *Bangor, Me.*, at the falls of the Penobscot River, is such a town, and is the most important lumber market in the New England States.

Another forest product of considerable importance in New England is maple sugar, made from the sap of the maple trees in the more northern states, and particularly in Vermont. Vermont makes more maple sugar than any other state in the Union.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Study the surface of New England from the physical map of the United States; then color an outline map of these states showing the upland and lowland areas. (2) Draw the rivers which rise in the upland and flow across the lowland to the sea. (3) Indicate by a cross where the rivers would have falls or rapids.



FIG. 208. A New England sawmill.

(4) Are such falls common or uncommon to the New England rivers? (5) What crops could be grown on a Vermont farm? (6) What western states provide lumber for New England? (7) What town in Michigan would probably furnish the interior woodwork for a house in New Hampshire? (8) Account for the number of rocks and boulders in the pastures of New England. For the number of sawmills. (9) How does Vermont maple sugar reach your home?

(10) Why is the upland surface not fitted for agriculture? (11) Name the river valleys where farming is profitable.

(12) On the outline map used in Exercise 1 locate the towns which have grown up at the head of navigation of the rivers and mark the place with an anchor. (13) Where is the population centered in Maine and New Hampshire?

Give the reason. (14) Name the towns on the Connecticut and Merrimac rivers. (15) Account for the presence of so many towns on these rivers. (16) How has the fact of the glaciation of New England affected the location of towns? Of summer resorts? Of industries? (17) Tell what you can about the varied scenery of coast, upland, and mountain from a study of the pictures in this book.

XXVIII. NEW ENGLAND

(Continued)

Fishing. Owing to the excellent harbors close to the fishing grounds of the continental shelf, New England has always been noted for its fishing. Two forms of this industry are carried on—shore fishing and offshore fishing. The offshore fishing for halibut, cod, and other deep-sea fishes is the most important. This is largely centered in *Gloucester, Boston,* and *Provincetown, Mass.*, and *Portland, Me.* Some of the fish is packed to be sold fresh, but the larger portion is salted and cured so that it is not necessary for the fishermen to reach a market until they have caught a good cargo. Hence they can take voyages of several weeks' duration.

The other form of fishing is that which is carried on near shore, particularly for mackerel, herring, and bluefish. These fish are caught mainly in the summer months by fishermen from the small ports, who get their catch to market as soon as possible. Along the shore in some places, clams, which live on the bottom, are dug and sent to the city markets. South of the peninsula of Cape Cod, oyster raising is an important occupation, some of the best oysters coming from the shores of Rhode Island and Connecticut.

In the estuaries of this southern shore, scallops are caught for the winter market. Lobsters are also a valuable fish product along the coast of Maine and Massachusetts. So much fish is canned along the coast of Maine that this state ranks, next to Washington, the most important fish-canning state in the Union.

Although fishing is still a leading occupation in the New England States, it is by no means as important as it was in the early history of the country when whale oil was the principal fluid used for artificial lighting, and when whaling employed a large number of vessels. At that time *New Bedford*, *Nantucket*, and *Marblehead*, Mass., were, because of their fishing, among the largest cities in the Union.

Mining and Quarrying. The strong rocks, which underlie the surface of New England, contain few mineral deposits of value, but they are exceedingly important for furnishing building and ornamental stones. Granite is quarried extensively in the northern states for building and paving stones. *Concord*,

N. H., *Barre*, Vt., *Rockland*, Me., *Quincy* and *Gloucester*, Mass., and *Westerly*, R. I., are the chief granite-producing centers. The importance of the industry in all these towns, except *Barre*, Vt., is in part dependent upon the fact that they lie close to the sea, so that the quarry products may be easily and cheaply shipped. The quarrying of marble is carried on extensively in Vermont; *Rutland* is the chief center for this industry in the United States. Vermont also produces a large amount of slate. In the

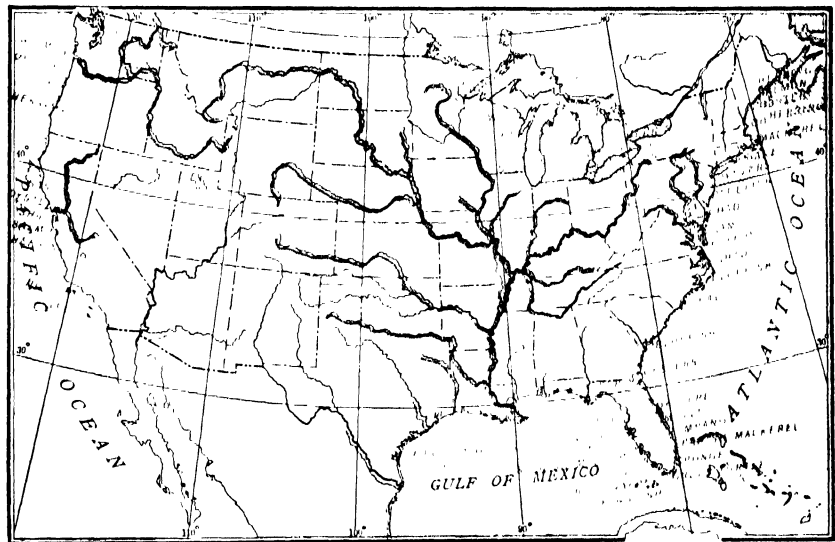


FIG. 209. The principal interior fishing waters and the chief lake and coastal fisheries.

lower Connecticut Valley sandstones, which have been much used as ornamental building stones, are quarried, and the volcanic ridges near the sandstone areas are increasing in importance as sources of supply for excellent road-building material.

Manufacturing. Although more than one-half of the people in New England are engaged in manufacturing, New England produces less than fifteen per cent of the manufactured products of the United States. It is surpassed in this particular by the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast and the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin. Each of these groups of states produces manufactured

products twice as valuable as those of New England. (See Fig. 231.)

The manufacturing establishments of New England are largely in the valleys and near the ocean, where the supply of power and the opportunities for commerce make the

is centered largely in the three cities, *Brockton, Lynn, and Haverhill, Mass.*

Massachusetts is the first cotton-manufacturing state in the Union. (See Fig. 211.) It imports the raw cotton mostly from the southern states. *Fall River, Mass.*, is the most

important cotton-manufacturing city in the United States. *Lowell, New Bedford, and Lawrence, Mass.*, and *Manchester, N. H.*, are also centers for this industry.

Massachusetts is also the first state in the manufacture of woollens and woolen goods. (See (Figs. 212 and 213.) *Lowell*, next to Philadelphia, is the leading woolen manufacturing city in the country. *Lawrence, Lowell, and Fitchburg, Mass.*, and other smaller towns

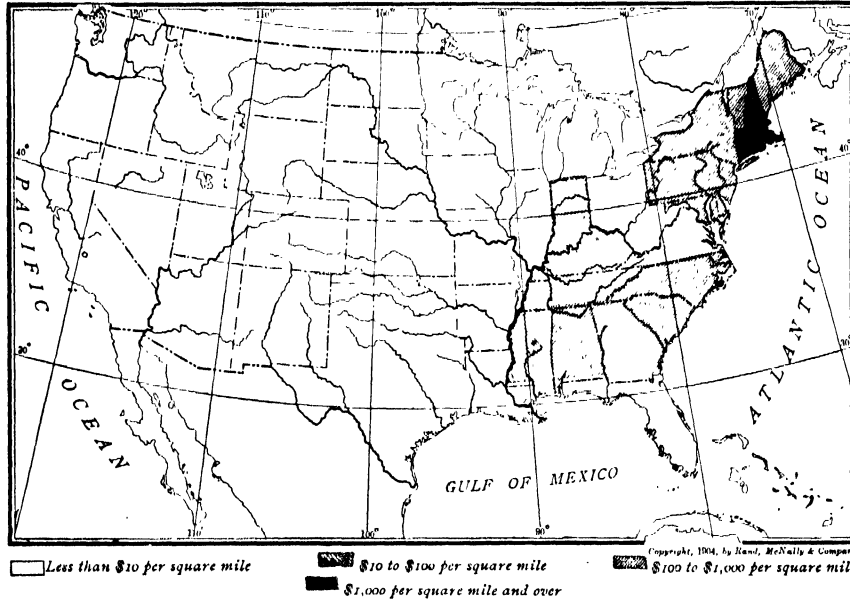


FIG. 210. The leading cotton-manufacturing areas of the United States.

industry most successful. Most of the raw products necessary for manufacturing have to be brought from a distance, but the advantages of cheap power and good transportation facilities so far outweigh this one disadvantage that manufacturing is constantly increasing. Because of the development of manufacturing the people have migrated in large numbers from the country regions to the towns, so that in large portions of New England, especially in the northern part, the rural population has greatly decreased in recent years.

The most important manufactures are cotton and woolen goods, leather products, machinery for cotton and woolen mills, fine tools, and delicate instruments. Massachusetts leads in the manufacture of boots and shoes, making nearly half the boots and shoes of the United States. This industry

turn out so large a product of woollens and textiles that the value of these goods in Massachusetts exceeds that of Pennsylvania, the second state in the value of woolen manufactures, by many millions of dollars annually.

Rhode Island is the leading state in the

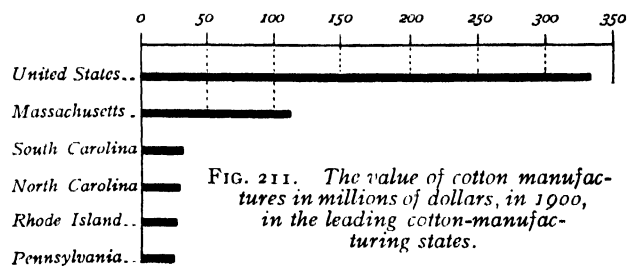


FIG. 211. The value of cotton manufactures in millions of dollars, in 1900, in the leading cotton-manufacturing states.

manufacturing of jewelry. This industry centers in *Providence*, which makes more than a quarter of the jewelry of the whole country. The neighboring cities of *Attleboro* and *North Attleboro, Mass.*, are also important for their jewelry. Many of the towns of Connecticut,

like *Meriden* and *Waterbury*, lead in the production of plated silverware and brass work, and *Waltham*, Mass., is noted the world over for its fine watches.

Massachusetts is the second and Maine the third state in the Union in the production of paper. The paper mills are largely situated upon the headwaters of streams, like the Connecticut, the Androscoggin, and the Kennebec, where the abundance of water power and the nearness of the forests make this industry particularly successful. The largest paper-making city, however, is *Holyoke*, Mass., where the abundant water power of the Connecticut River is utilized for this purpose. The finer grades of paper are made here, largely from rags rather than wood pulp.

Trade and Cities. Owing to the large and commodious harbors possessed by all the states of New England except Vermont, foreign and coastwise commerce is easily

road connections with the large cities of Canada. It receives from Canada a great quantity of products for exportation during the winter months when the St. Lawrence is frozen. It also is the natural outlet for the manufactures of Biddeford, Saco, Lewiston, and

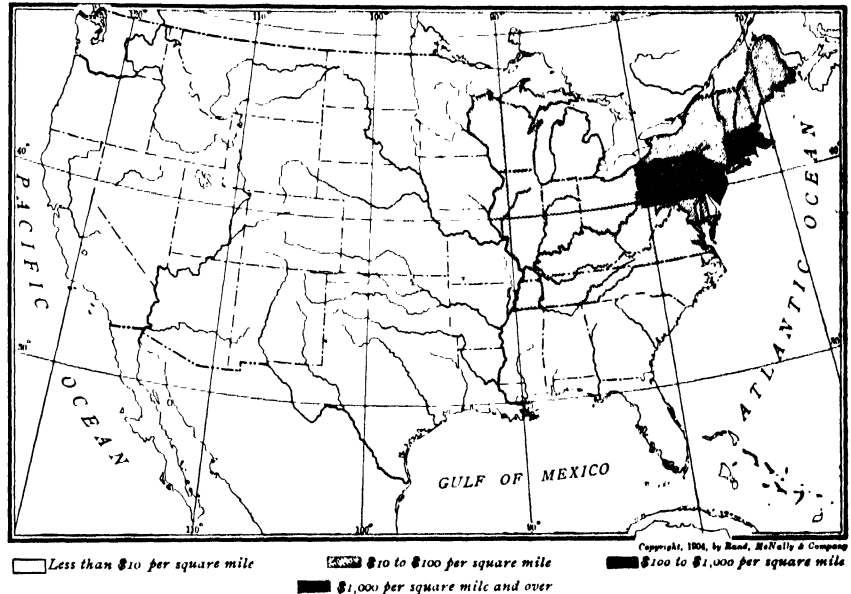


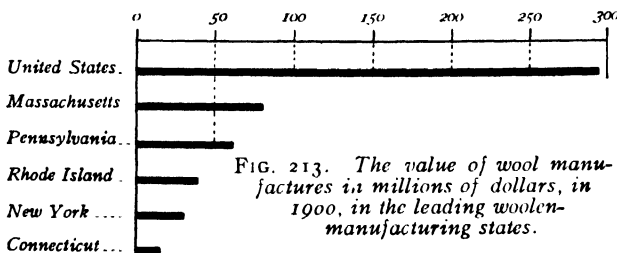
FIG. 212. The leading woolen-manufacturing areas of the United States.

the other neighboring manufacturing cities.

Southern New England is covered by a close network of railroads connecting the manufacturing cities with the ports. The railroads carry an enormous amount of freight to the ports, and also bring large quantities of food and raw products from the South and the West.

Boston, the principal wool market of the country, exports food products to Europe, and has an extensive coastwise commerce with New York, Savannah, and the West Indies. It is the financial center of New England, and the first city in the Union

for the exportation of leather and leather goods. It is situated on a fine harbor (see Fig. 214) and is surrounded by many cities, more than twenty of which are within an hour's ride by rail. The neighboring cities are nearly all important in some line of



carried on and is very important. The chief commercial city is *Boston*, Mass., which, next to New York and Galveston, is the most important port in the United States. *Portland*, Me., is also a large and growing port because it has a fine harbor and excellent rail-

manufacturing, and many of them are the homes of the business men of Boston.

Boston is connected with the large cities of central Massachusetts and the West by two railroads, which bring a great quantity of cereals and provisions to its ports. It is famous for its magnificent system of parks, for its many fine public buildings, and for its educational and charitable institutions. It is a center of great historic interest, especially because of the stirring events of the Revolutionary War which took place in the city or in the surrounding towns. *Cambridge, Mass.*, is noted as being the location of Harvard University, the oldest and largest university in the country.

The second city in size in New England is *Providence, R. I.* Providence is a large manufacturing city with an extensive coastwise trade on account of its position on the Providence River. *Worcester, Mass.*, the third city in New England in size, is located in the center of a large manufacturing area, and has excellent railroad connection with Boston, Providence, and the West. *Hartford, Conn.*, *Holyoke, Springfield*, and *Chicopee, Mass.*, are the leading manufacturing cities in the Connecticut Valley. Springfield, the junction of railroads from the east, the west, the north, and the south, is the railway center of western New England.

The largest city of Vermont is *Burlington*, on Lake Champlain. Owing to its position on the lake, it is an important trade center for the region round about, especially for **lumber brought from Canada**. New Hampshire has four important cities: *Concord, Manchester, Nashua*, and *Portsmouth*. Concord,

the capital, is the center for the granite industry; Manchester and Nashua are large manufacturing cities; Portsmouth has a good harbor and a large navy yard.

Connecticut has two large cities and several smaller ones. *Hartford*, the capital, situated at the head of navigation on the Connecticut River, is the center of trade for the smaller manufacturing places of the Connecticut Valley, and has valuable manufactures of machinery and bicycles. The largest city of Connecticut is *New Haven*. New Haven has an excellent harbor and is at the junction of three railroads from Boston, each of

which passes through many manufacturing towns. It is therefore well placed for coastwise trade. The manufacture of clocks, fire-arms, and locks is the leading local industry. Yale University, one of the oldest and most renowned universities of the country, is located here. All the larger coast towns of Connecticut are connected with New York

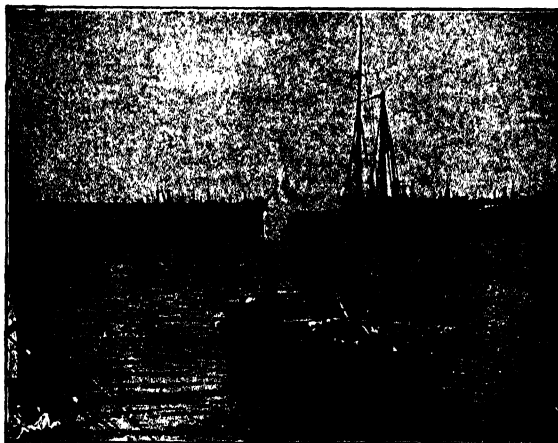


FIG. 214. Boston Harbor. Notice the "fishing smack," as the small sailing vessels which are used for fishing on the Grand Banks are called.

by daily steamers, and can thus readily ship the products of the interior towns to this great commercial center.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) How does the climate of Maine favor lumbering? (2) How does the climate of New England favor agriculture? (3) What fruits can grow there? What fruits must be imported? (4) What are the occupations along the coast? In the river valleys? In the upland regions? (5) Why are the farms so small? (6) Name the fish caught off the shores. (7) Make a list of the raw materials sent into New England to be manufactured. (8) Where do they come from and to what towns is the finished product sent? (9) On an outline map of New England locate the chief manufacturing towns.

XXIX. MIDDLE STATES OF THE ATLANTIC COAST

STATE	Abbrevia- tion	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
New York.....	N. Y.	49,204	9,113,614	New York	4,766,883	Albany
Pennsylvania.....	Pa.	45,126	7,665,111	Philadelphia...	1,549,008	Harrisburg
New Jersey.....	N. J.	8,224	2,537,167	Newark.....	347,469	Trenton
Delaware.....	Del.	2,370	202,322	Wilmington...	87,411	Dover
Maryland.....	Md.	12,327	1,295,346	Baltimore.....	558,485	Annapolis
Virginia.....	Va.	42,627	2,061,612	Richmond	127,628	Richmond
District of Columbia.....	D. C.	70	331,069	Washington..	331,069	

Size and Soil. The Middle States of the Atlantic Coast, extending from Canada on the north to North Carolina on the south, have together an area about twice that of New England. This group of states includes parts of the Atlantic Coastal Plain, the Piedmont Belt, and the several divisions of the Appalachian Highland, which have already been described. (See Fig. 191.) Nearly the whole of New York, and the northern portions of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, were covered by the continental glacier. (See Fig. 180.) Hence the streams abound in falls, lakes are numerous, and the upland soils are thin. In the valleys the glacial soils are deep and generally fertile. (See Fig. 197.) In the region which was not glaciated soils like the underlying rock are found, as they are throughout the southern states.

Climate. Owing to the location of the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast on the easterly side of the continent, the climate is very changeable, but is everywhere moist. There is a wide range of temperature between the summer and the winter, and in winter the changes are rapid and often severe. In the higher Adirondacks the temperature is far below the freezing point during the larger part of the winter, while in southern Virginia extremely low temperatures are rarely recorded for more than two or three days at a time.

The summer climate is generally warm and moist. In the higher mountains like

the Adirondacks, the mountains of Pennsylvania, of eastern New York, and of western Virginia and Maryland cooler temperatures prevail at night. These regions have therefore become favorite summer resorts.

About New York City and in the lowland which lies to the east of Lake Erie, fogs are very dense during a large part of the winter months. In western New York the fogs are due to the condensation of the moisture brought by the warm air from the lakes to the cooler surface of the land. The fogs around New York City are formed by the chilling of the moisture brought from the sea. These fogs are often so dense as to interfere seriously with navigation. There are occasional days when no vessels can enter or leave New York Harbor on account of the fog.

THE COASTAL PLAIN

The coastal plain extends from New York southward and as far inland as the Fall Line. (See Fig. 191.)

Agriculture. The fine, rich soils, the early spring and late autumn, the abundant water supply brought down by the rivers, all favor the development of agriculture in the coastal plain. The network of railways connecting the interior with the great cities along the coast afford quick transportation. These cities, together with the manufacturing towns that have grown up along the Fall Line, furnish a ready market for everything that is raised. Therefore throughout this region

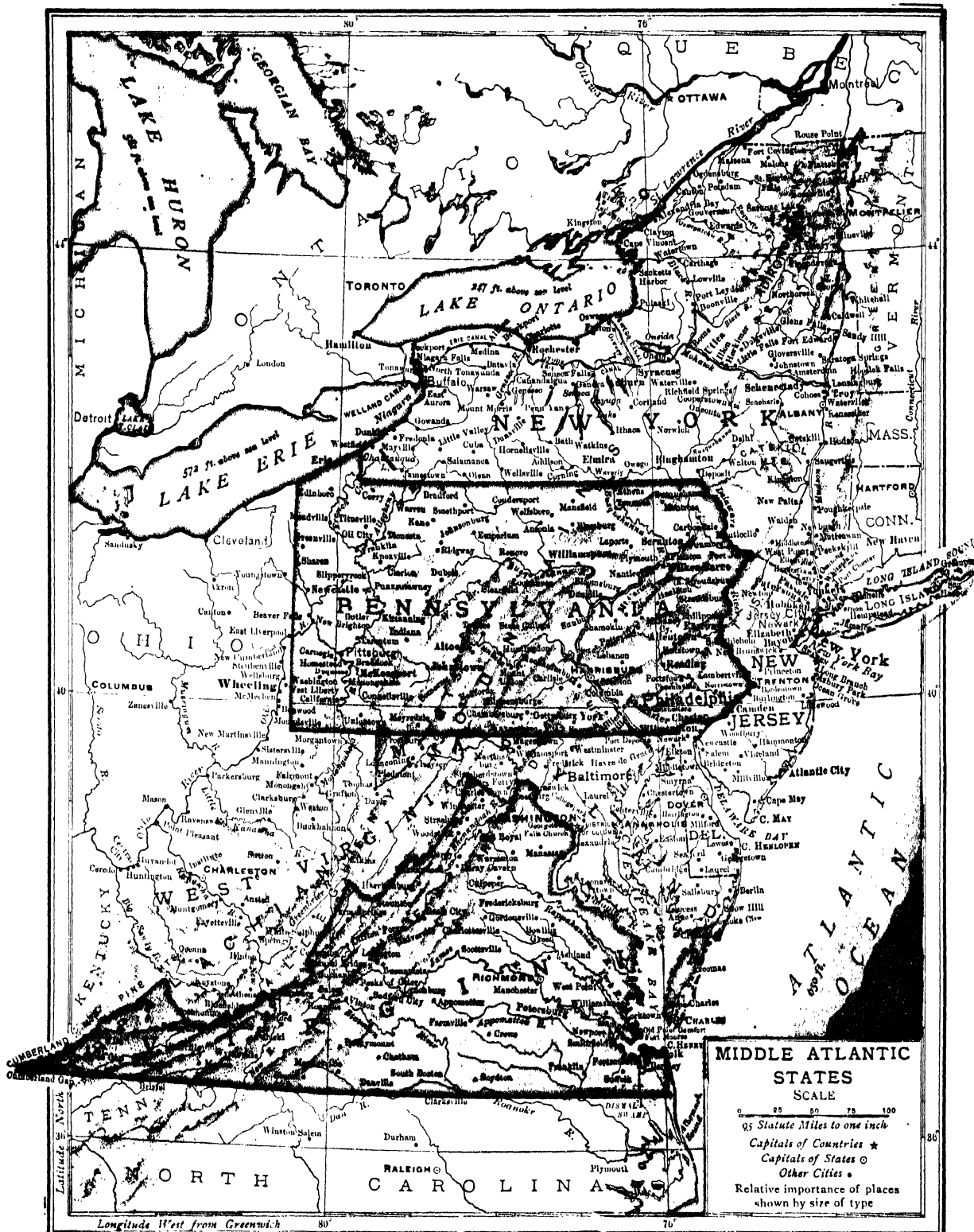


FIG. 215.

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early spring vegetables and potatoes, tomatoes and beans, fruits, such as grapes, peaches, strawberries, and cantaloupes, are grown in large quantities, and are either shipped by rail or by water to New York and the other large northern markets. Peanuts are raised in large portions of the coastal plain of Virginia, which leads all the states in the Union in this branch of agriculture. (See Fig. 216.)

Fishing. The rivers and estuaries of the coastal plain area are not only important as routes for commerce, but also for their fishing, particularly oyster fishing. (See Fig. 209.) Oysters require clear, warm, shallow water into which a steady supply of fresh water is running all the time so as to make it brackish. These conditions are all furnished in *Chesapeake Bay*, which receives the drainage of many large river basins. Hence this bay is the great center for oyster fishing, and *Baltimore, Md.*, is the chief city in the country for the canning of oysters.

Mineral Products. The rocks of the coastal plain are valuable. Some of the clays are particularly adapted to the making of pottery, drain pipes, and light-colored bricks. *Trenton, N. J.*, close to abundant supplies of pottery clay, is the most important pottery-making city in the Union, but secures its finer clays from a distance. *Perth Amboy, N. J.*, at the northern extremity of the coastal plain, makes light-colored bricks, largely used for ornamental purposes in buildings. (See Fig. 217.) Certain rock layers of the coastal



FIG. 217 Towing *Perth Amboy* bricks into New York Harbor.

plain also supply glass sands for the making of glass.

THE PIEDMONT BELT

Beginning at the Fall Line, which forms the western boundary of the Atlantic Coastal Plain, and extending to the Allegheny Mountains, is the Piedmont Belt. (See Fig. 191.)

Agriculture. The Piedmont Belt, with its rolling surface and fine lowland soils, is, next to the coastal plain, the great agricultural portion of the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast. All parts of this belt have excellent railroad connections with the large cities, and therefore the agricultural products may be readily carried to market. (See Fig. 218.)

In the northern portion of the belt, particularly in New Jersey, most of the farmers are engaged in truck farming, that is, the raising of vegetables and fruit for immediate use in the neighboring cities. In Virginia the Piedmont Belt is the tobacco-growing area. *Lynchburg* and *Danville* are in the midst of the tobacco-producing country; *Richmond* is the second largest tobacco market in the United States.

Cities. The Piedmont Belt in New Jersey, being separated from New York City only by

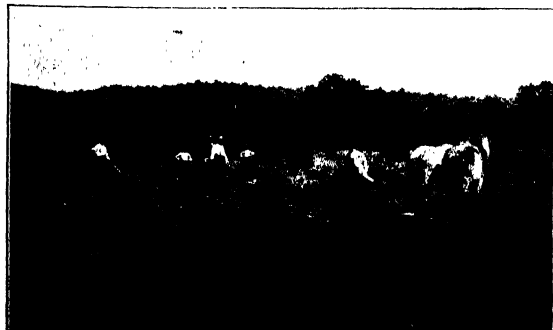


FIG. 216. Peanut raising in Virginia.



FIG. 218. One of the many splendidly equipped express trains run over the Piedmont Belt.

the Hudson River, and sharing with New York City the advantages of the Hudson as a harbor and a commercial route, contains many large cities. The most important are *Newark*, *Jersey City*, and *Hoboken*. These cities, together with the neighboring towns, are the residences of thousands of business men who go back and forth to their offices in New York City every day. The same is true of the towns about Philadelphia.

THE APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS

The Appalachian Mountains extend southwestward from New England throughout the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast. (See Fig. 191.) In New Jersey and southeastern New York they form a barrier, broken only by the water gaps of the several streams. In Pennsylvania they are so disconnected that they hardly form a continuous range, while in Virginia they are more

continuous and are known as the Blue Ridge; so named because the mountains, clothed in haze, looked blue to the early settlers in the Piedmont Belt. Although the Blue Ridge is broken by few streams that offer water gaps for railroads, it contains many passes, which are of some importance as routes of travel between the eastern and western portions of Virginia. Throughout their extent in the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast the Appalachian Mountains are generally forest-covered, and

where their slopes are rugged and precipitous they are noted for their scenery.

The Water Gap of the Hudson River. The most important of the water gaps through the Appalachian Mountains is that of the Hudson River. The Hudson River is a tidal estuary as far north as Troy, or for a distance of about one hundred and fifty miles. Its western branch, the Mohawk, and the lowlands south of Lake Ontario together form a great

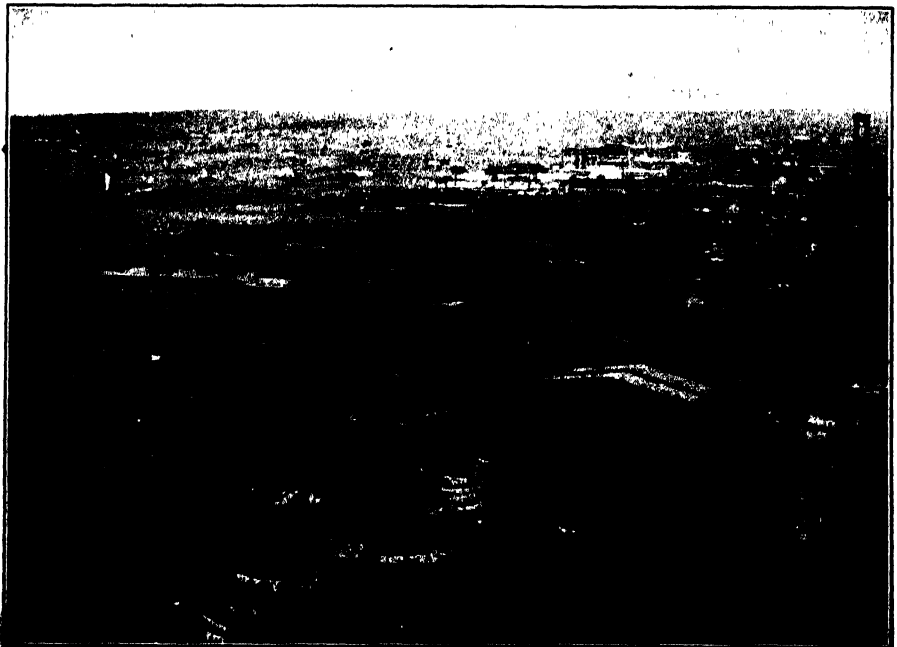
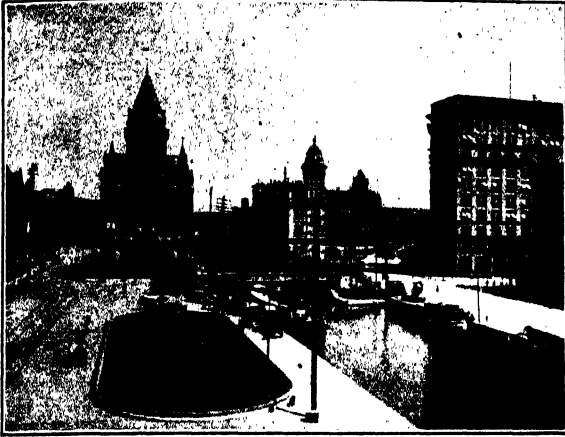


FIG. 219. Looking up the Hudson from New York City.

FIG. 220. *The Erie Canal at Syracuse.*

highway, with gentle grades connecting the Hudson Valley and the Great Lakes and making it possible to transport goods by this route from Buffalo and the West to New York with ease. Hence the Hudson Valley may well be called the Gateway of the American Continent. The water gap through the highlands of the Hudson is the narrowest and most important portion of this gateway. Through it pass two railroads, one on each side of the river. In the summer season the Hudson River is also an important route for water commerce. No one of the other rivers crossing the Appalachian Mountains is a water route, save for short distances where canals have been built.

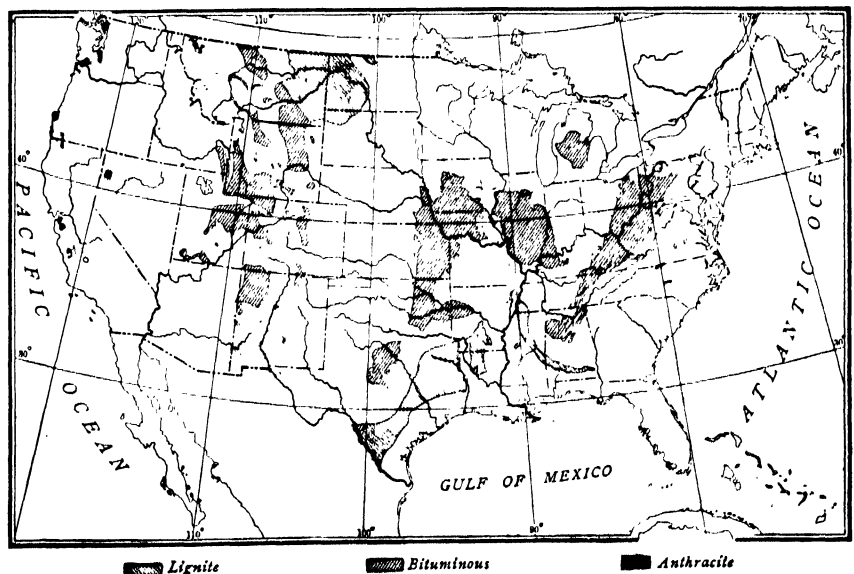
The Susquehanna Valley. The Susquehanna Valley is the route of the second great railroad from Philadelphia and New York westward. This road, however, had to be built over high altitudes and is therefore more expensive to operate than the railroads which follow the Hudson River Valley.

THE GREAT VALLEY

The Great Valley is a trough lying just west of the Appalachian Mountains. It is not so broad or so well defined in New York as it is in the states farther south.

The Great Valley in New York. In New York the Great Valley is mainly of importance as a route of travel and transportation, inasmuch as it is narrow and contains the upper Hudson and Lake Champlain.

The lowland containing the Mohawk and the plains along Lake Ontario is the western branch of the Great Valley. It is a good farming area, especially for hops, potatoes, and hay. (Figs. 270 and 271.) The slopes here are so gentle that it was easy to build the Erie Canal, which connects the Hudson River with Lake Erie. Before railroads came this canal was of vast importance, and along it have grown up cities like *Rochester, Syracuse, and Utica.* (Fig. 220.) These towns have developed not only because of the canal, but also because they are agricultural or manufacturing centers. The chief cities of the Hudson Valley are *Albany*, the capital of New York, *Yonkers*, and *Troy*, the first city in the Union in the manufacture of collars and cuffs.

FIG. 221. *The coal fields of the United States.*

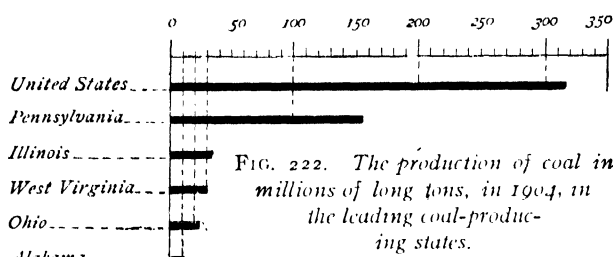
The Great Valley in Pennsylvania. In Pennsylvania the even surface of the Great Valley is broken by a number of ridges rising almost to the height of the Allegheny Plateau, and formed of the same kind of rock. These ridges are rich in anthracite, or hard coal, and in iron. Pennsylvania produces all the hard coal of the United States. In this section, coal, iron, and limestone used to purify iron, exist close together. Hence iron and steel

manufacturing have become great industries. *Scranton, Wilkes-Barre, Shamokin, and Pottsville* are important coal-mining centers. *Easton and Allentown* are among the leading steel-making towns of the country.

The Great Valley in Virginia. In Virginia the Great Valley includes the famous Shenandoah Valley, noted for its richness and beauty, and of great historic interest because of its importance in the campaigns of the Civil War. Cattle, horses, and sheep are raised in the southwestern section, and agriculture is carried on with success throughout the area. The minerals of this region, particularly in the south, are sufficiently valuable to cause the rapid development of iron, steel, and zinc works at *Pulaski* and *Roanoke*. The neighboring forests furnish a supply of hardwoods, like walnut and oak, which are used extensively in the manufacture of furniture in the valley cities of Virginia.

The Shenandoah Valley is a natural highway, and is therefore the route of a trunk

line of railroad from Philadelphia and Harrisburg to Chattanooga and the South. It is also crossed by one of the great coal-carrying railroads of the country, connecting the West Virginia coal fields with Norfolk, which is one of the leading coal ports of the United States.



THE ADIRONDACK MOUNTAINS

Lying between the two northern forks of the Great Valley is an area made up of strong rocks like those of New England. It is known

as the Adirondack Mountains. This highland, together with the lower rolling country stretching westward to the Great Lakes, is largely forest-covered and noted for its scenery. (See Figs. 191 and 223.) The high, rugged mountains, the beautiful, wooded slopes, and the picturesque lakes, occurring singly or in chains, make the region particularly attractive to tourists in the summer months. Owing to the bracing atmosphere and the delightful climate, the Adirondack Mountains have also become a favorite health resort,

especially for people who are afflicted with diseases of the lungs.

Manufacturing.

The Adirondack Mountains furnish water for rivers flowing to the St. Lawrence, the Hudson, and Lake Champlain. The forests supply wood for pulp.

Therefore on the

headwaters of the Hudson and on the western slopes of the highland paper-making flourishes. New York leads the country in this industry. *Glens Falls* is the most important paper-making city in the state.



FIG. 223. A summer scene in the Adirondack Mountains.

Dairying. The western portion of this area, bordering the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, and extending southward to the Mohawk Valley, is a great grazing country, in which the milk is largely made into butter and cheese, as it is across the river in Canada. Owing to the distance from a good market and the poor shipping facilities to the great cities, it is impossible to sell the milk profitably, hence the rapid development of the butter and cheese industry. New York is now the first state in the Union in dairy products. (See Figs. 224 and 225.)

Cities. The eastern towns of this area, on the shore of Lake Champlain, are centers for lake commerce. They are also points of departure for people entering the Adirondacks. The chief town in this region is *Plattsburg*, a port on Lake Champlain, from which many summer tourists leave for Canadian camping expeditions. *Saratoga* is situated in a region abounding in mineral springs, and has become a famous summer resort to which thousands of people go each year.

The leading towns of the western portion are *Ogdensburg*, dependent for its growth largely upon its position on the St. Lawrence; *Watertown*, a manufacturing center, power for which is furnished by the Black River, and *Clayton*, at which visitors for the beautiful Thousand Islands leave the railroad.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) How are the boundaries of New York state advantageous? (2) Compare Pennsylvania with New York in this respect. (3) Compare the surfaces of New York and Pennsylvania. (4) Which has the most favorable surface for the development of varied occupations? (5) What do you understand by the name "Water Gap" as applied to the Delaware River? (6) Find other similar gaps in the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast. (7) Trace a railroad

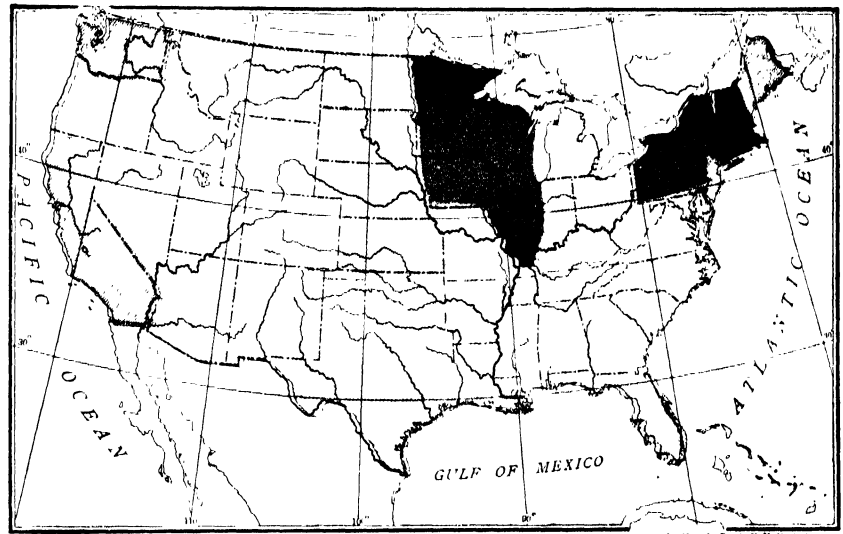


FIG. 224. The areas of the United States devoted to dairying.

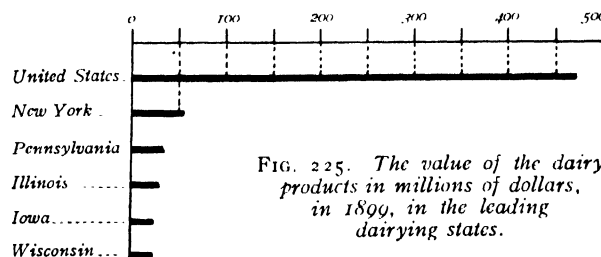


FIG. 225. The value of the dairy products in millions of dollars, in 1899, in the leading dairying states.

- through the Hudson Valley and Gap to Buffalo. (8) Locate the chief cities on this road. (9) Why have so many sprung up here? (10) Why is this valley so important? (11) What advantages does a railroad in this valley have over that in the Susquehanna Valley? (12) What rivers make gaps in the Blue Ridge? Trace the railroad routes which cross the mountains through these gaps. (13) Locate the chief coal fields of these states. (14) Why should iron and steel manufacturing have developed near these fields? (15) How is coal from Pennsylvania sent to Boston? (16) Draw a map of Pennsylvania showing the coal and iron producing areas. Locate the mining and steel-making towns.



FIG. 226. Oil wells in western Pennsylvania.

XXX. MIDDLE STATES OF THE ATLANTIC COAST (Continued)

THE ALLEGHENY PLATEAU

The Allegheny Plateau occupies all of that portion of the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast west of the Great Valley and south of the Mohawk River. (See Fig. 191.) It includes a small part of West Virginia and Maryland and a large part of western Pennsylvania and southern and western New York, and ends in the Catskill Mountains. This plateau is everywhere more than a thousand feet in height and forms the center from which radiate streams to the Great Lakes, to the Atlantic, and to the Ohio.

Dairying. Owing to the altitude, the damp climate, and to the slopes which are available for grazing, large portions of the Allegheny Plateau are devoted to dairying. In the eastern portion the dairy products are largely sent to New York City in the form of milk. In the region to the west, which is farther from the eastern

markets, the milk is made into butter and cheese, as it is in the Adirondacks.

Agriculture. The agricultural products of the Allegheny Plateau include potatoes, beans, and sugar beets. New York is the second state in the production of beans, and the sugar-beet industry is developing rapidly. Owing to the damp, cool climate, rye is an important cereal in this region; Pennsylvania is the first state in production. In the lowland bordering Lake Erie and Lake Ontario and bounded on the south by the plateau, grapes and other fruits flourish. Spring and autumn are both late. Hence grapes do not start too early in the spring and ripen before frost. New York, second only to California in value of fruit products, is also second to that state in grape culture. It ranks first in the raising of apples, and Pennsylvania second. (See Fig. 295.)

Mineral Products. The wealth of the Allegheny Plateau lies in the rocks, which contain coal, gas, and oil. The rocks are nearly horizontal, and are but little broken. Hence the gas and oil are held until an opening is made through which they can reach the surface. (See Fig. 226.) Salt also occurs here.

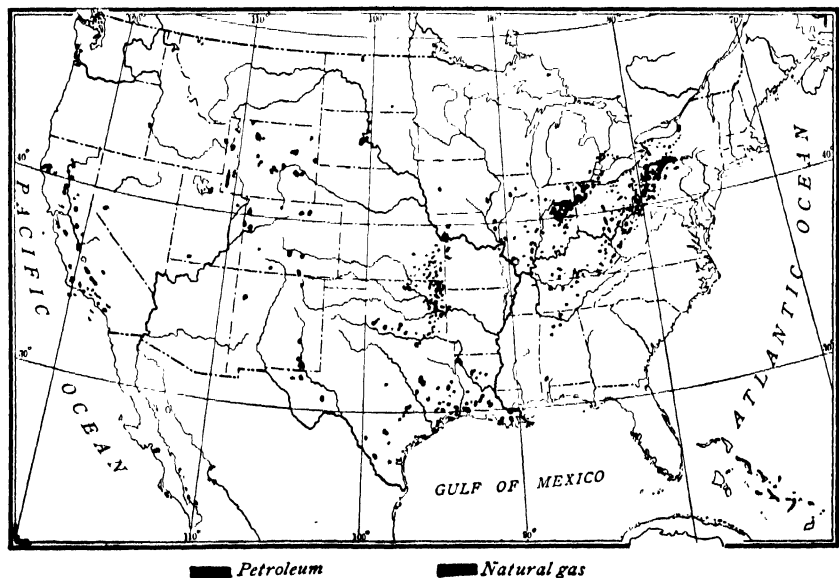


FIG. 227. The gas and petroleum fields of the United States.

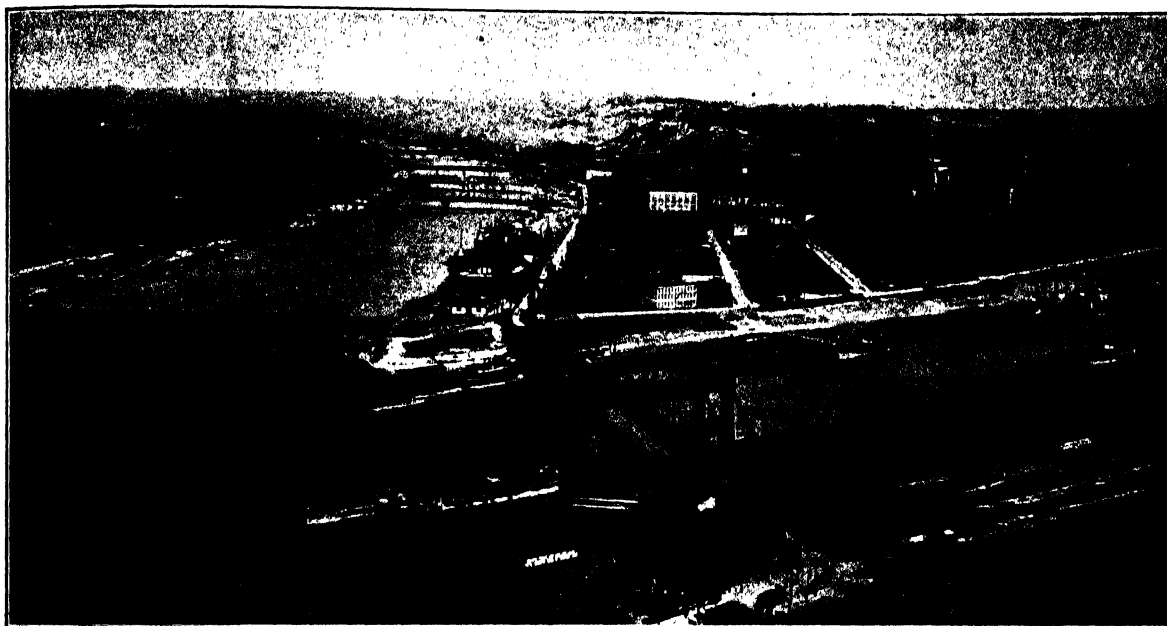


FIG. 228. A general view of Pittsburgh. Notice the many facilities for carrying on commerce.

Western Pennsylvania produces a large quantity of bituminous coal. This, added to the vast amounts of anthracite mined in the ridges of the Great Valley, makes Pennsylvania the chief coal-producing state in the Union. (See Fig. 222.) It also leads in the production of natural gas and coke. The coke is used in the smelting of iron brought from Michigan and Minnesota, and as a result western Pennsylvania is the greatest iron

and steel producing region of the United States. The iron ore is brought from the Lake Superior region as it has been found much cheaper to transport the ore

down the lakes to the coal than to carry the coal to the ore. Pennsylvania produces more than one-half of all the iron and steel manufactured in the United States. The most important steel cities are *Pittsburgh*, which produces more than ten per cent of all the iron and steel manufactured in the country,

McKeesport, and *Johnstown*. *Pittsburgh* is also the chief glass-making city of the country. The success of this industry is due to the supply of natural gas, which affords the best heat for glass blowing. *Connellsville* is the leading coke center of the country. Coke is made by burning coal so as to drive off the gas. Pennsylvania and New York also produce petroleum and in the production of salt New York leads the country.

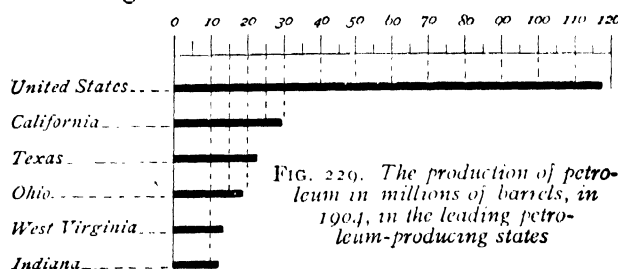


FIG. 229. The production of petroleum in millions of barrels, in 1904, in the leading petroleum-producing states

Cities. On the coast of Lake Erie there are two large cities, dependent in part upon their proximity to the coal fields of Pennsylvania, and in part upon their fa-

vorable position on the Great Lakes, down which comes the iron ore. The chief city is *Buffalo*, the second largest city of New York. It is connected with New York City by many railroad lines, and by the water route afforded by the Erie Canal and the Hudson River. It is also the most eastern

port of the United States having continuous water connection with the upper lake ports. Through it passes an enormous quantity of lumber, grain, iron ore, and live stock in transit from the West to the eastern seaports and Europe. Owing to the ease with which raw materials can be secured, Buffalo has become one of the important cities of the country in the manufacture of pig iron, cars, and flour.

Eric, Pa., with a fine natural harbor, has a large trade in coal and petroleum carried from Pennsylvania westward, and in iron and lumber brought from the upper lake ports to Pennsylvania. Like Buffalo, it has found it easy to secure raw materials and has therefore developed into a leading manufacturing city.

Scenery and Resorts. The more rugged portions of both the Adirondack and the Catskill mountains are much visited in summer. The fishing and hunting to be found in the forests attract sportsmen, and the mountain air is sought by invalids.

The most famous natural feature of the western portion of New York state is *Niagara Falls*, formed where the waters of the upper Great Lakes descend over one of the bordering cliffs of the Allegheny Plateau on its way into the Lake Ontario lowland. A great mass of water falls a distance of one hundred and sixty feet in two portions, known as the American and the Canadian falls. These falls are not the highest or the

widest known in the world, but they have a greater volume of water than any other falls and are remarkably beautiful. They are visited by great numbers of people each year, and are one of the most noted scenic features of America. A small portion of the water is now being used to develop electricity which is carried to Buffalo, N. Y., for use in lighting and power. (See Fig. 230.)

Along the barrier beaches that border the shore of New Jersey are many famous summer resorts. The best known are *Atlantic City* and *Ocean Grove*.

Trade and Cities. *New York* is the most important city in America for its foreign

trade. (See Fig. 219.) It is situated on a magnificent harbor at the mouth of the Hudson River, and is connected by railroads and by water with the manufacturing cities of New England. From it railroads radiate along all the natural highways toward the western and

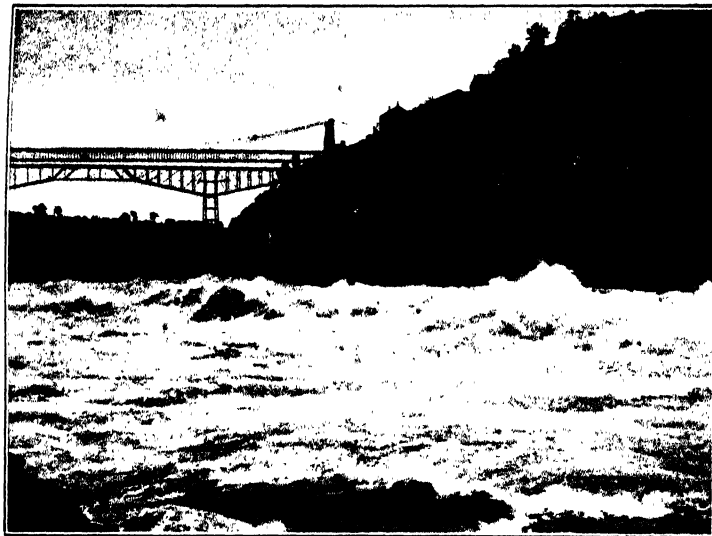


FIG. 230. The rapids below Niagara Falls.

southern states, and the Hudson River and the Erie Canal furnish a water route to the Great Lakes. New York, by reason of its location, has long been the largest city and the most important port in the country. It is also the second largest city in the world.

The original city of New York is located on a long, narrow island, hemmed in between the Hudson River and Long Island Sound. To this area Brooklyn on Long Island and the whole of Staten Island to the south have been added within a few years. It has over three hundred

miles of wharfage and shore line, and is connected by many steamship lines, not only with other ports up and down the Atlantic coast, but with all the leading ports of Europe, South America, and the West Indies. More than fifty ocean steamers engaged in foreign trade leave its docks weekly. Through it pass enormous quantities of foods, including bread-stuffs and animal products from the West, cotton from the South, and petroleum from the West, in transit to foreign ports. Its imports are equally large, and include raw and finished products from all parts of the world. It is the financial center of the United States, and therefore has countless business offices, banks, and large exporting houses, concentrated for the most part in the southern portion of the island on which the main part of New York is built. (See Fig. 232.)

Not only is it a commercial and financial center, but it is the chief manufacturing city of the country, particularly for the making of clothing, the publishing of books, and for planing-mill work. *Brooklyn*, which is now a part of New York, is the leading city in the country for the refining of sugar.

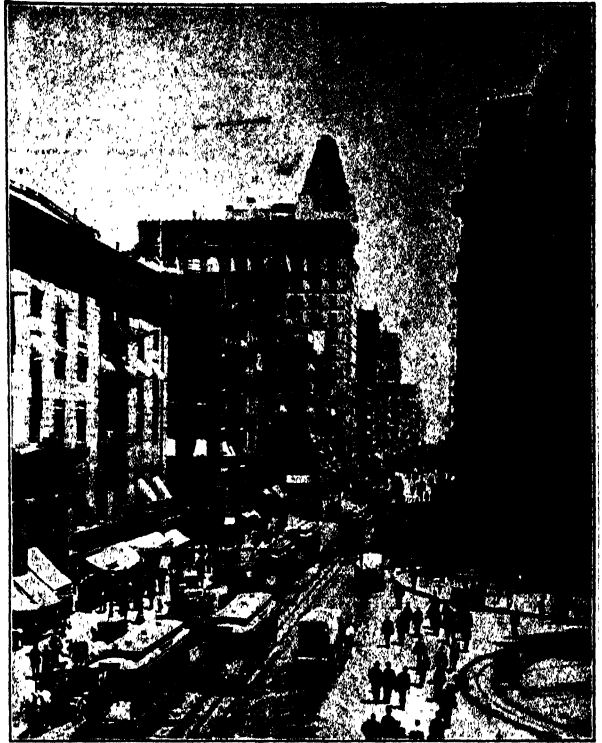


FIG. 232. New York along Broadway.

New York contains several important educational institutions, a number of large hospitals, and many charitable institutions. It

has magnificent museums and beautiful parks and streets. Broadway, the principal street, is one of the busiest thoroughfares in the world.

Owing to the fact that many people desire to do business in a small area, the larger office buildings are twelve to twenty stories in height, and some of them accommodate several thousand people. For the same reason the houses in which people live are generally not single dwellings, but are

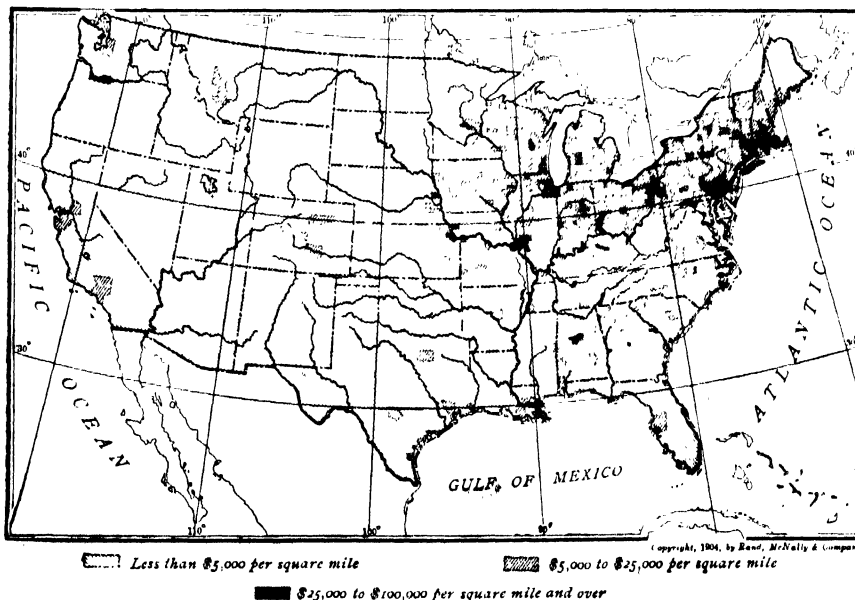


FIG. 231. The value of manufactured products per square mile in the United States.

built to accommodate many families, each family having a series of rooms on one floor.

Owing to the large number of people crowded together in a small area, the population is very dense in New York; in some parts denser than in any other place, with the possible exception of certain parts of London.

Philadelphia, Pa., is the third largest city in the United States and the fifth seaport in importance. It is situated practically at the head of navigation on the Delaware River, and with excellent railway connections with the iron and coal producing regions, its opportunities for commerce are excellent. It is a great coal-exporting city, particularly to the towns along the coast, and has several lines of foreign vessels. Because of its situation, it is an important manufacturing place, especially for carpets and rugs, woolen and worsted goods, and finished leather, in the making of which it surpasses all other cities in the country. It is also noted for its foundry and machine shop products, especially locomotives and cars.

Philadelphia contains many buildings that are of great historic interest. The most historic is Independence Hall, in which the Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776, and where the Liberty Bell is now preserved.

Philadelphia was the first city in this country to be laid out in blocks so that the streets and

avenues cross at right angles. This arrangement was due to William Penn, the founder of the city. William Penn's old home is still preserved in Fairmount Park.

Philadelphia is the business center for a number of large suburban places, of which

Camden, N. J., across the Delaware River, is the most important. All of these cities or towns have grown up with Philadelphia, and are as closely connected with it as the suburbs of New York and other large centers are with those cities.

Baltimore, Md., a growing and active city favorably situated on the Fall Line near the head of Chesapeake Bay, is coming to be a leading commercial center, and is the sixth seaport in importance. It is an important manufacturing city, especially for its ready-made clothing, its canning of fruits, vegetables, and oysters, and its tobacco products.

It is beautifully situated on a series of heights rising above the Piedmont lowland. It has excellent railroad connections with the North and the South, and with the West. The railroad to the West, however, has to follow more difficult grades than the western roads centering at Philadelphia and New York. Hence Baltimore is at a disadvantage

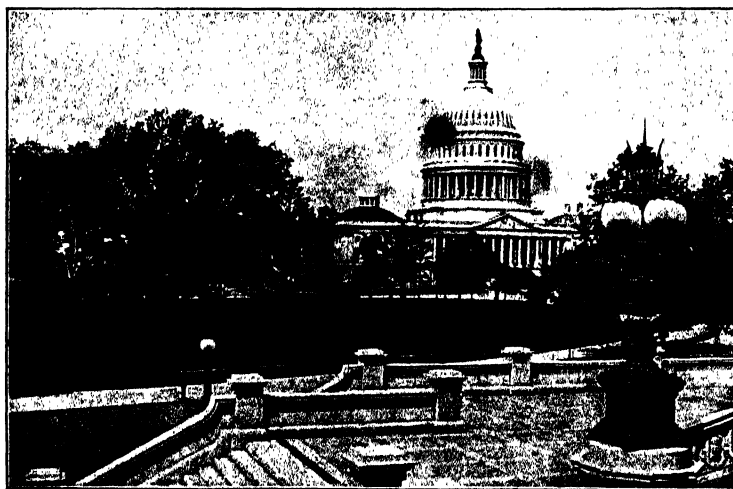
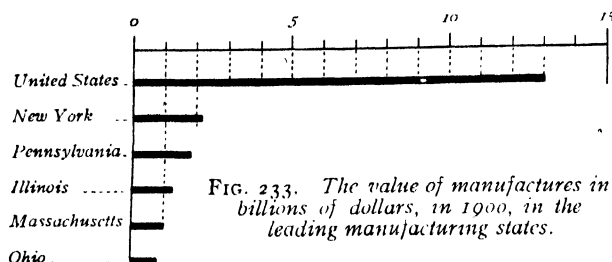


FIG. 234. The Capitol Building at Washington.

in securing trade with the regions lying to the west of the Appalachian Highland.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

The District of Columbia, with an area of seventy square miles, was laid out as a Federal District to contain the capital of the United States when the great western territory was little known, and when it was not expected that some day the United States would stretch from sea to sea.

The Capital. The city of *Washington*, which lies in the District of Columbia, is beautifully laid out. As the capital of the United States it contains the great Capitol Building with its impressive dome (see Fig. 234), the White House, the home of the President (see Fig. 236), and many large and beautiful public buildings in which the national business is conducted. Most of these buildings are visited annually by thousands of people from every part of the country. The most beautiful buildings are the Library of Congress (see Fig. 235) and the new Pension Building. The great monument to President Washington, 555 feet high, affords a fine view of the city, which rises from the quiet Potomac in a series of terraces.

Washington is not a port of importance, but it has daily steamboat connection with

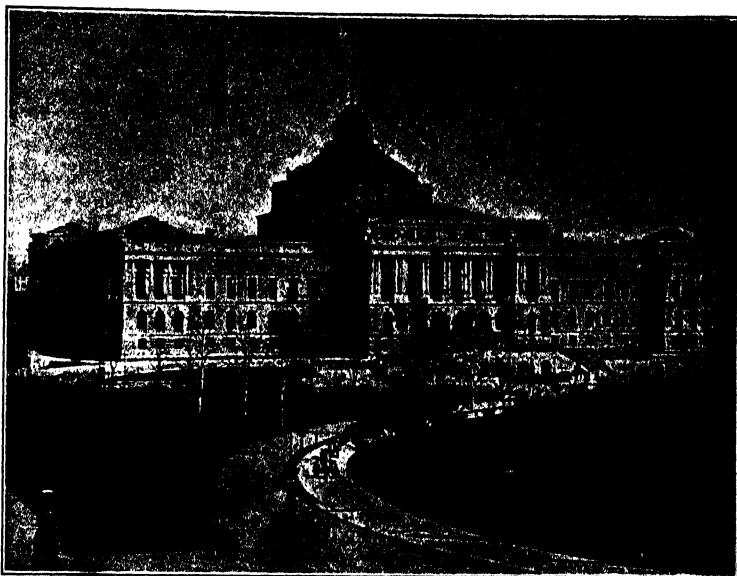


FIG. 235. *The Congressional Library at Washington.*

Norfolk, Va., and is the point from which visitors take boat or car for Mount Vernon, the fine old colonial home of President Washington, a few miles down the river.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Give the chief reasons why New York has outgrown Philadelphia in importance.
- (2) Give the reasons for the location of Buffalo, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, Trenton, and Scranton.
- (3) Make a list of the products which are dependent on the climate; those that are dependent chiefly on the surface.
- (4) Draw diagrams showing the location and commerce of Buffalo, Pittsburgh, and New York City, and show their connection by railroads with the larger cities of this section.
- (5) Name the chief imports of New York City; its chief exports.
- (6) Why should Philadelphia be an important manufacturing city?
- (7) What advantages in securing western trade has New York over Baltimore?
- (8) What advantage has Baltimore over New York?
- (9) Name the chief places in these states noted for their scenic beauty. Describe any one you have seen or of which you have seen pictures.
- (10) Name the chief places in these states noted for their historic associations. Describe any of these places you have visited or seen pictures of.
- (11) Why was the city of Washington located where it is?



FIG. 236. *The White House, the home of the President.*

XXXI. SOUTHERN STATES OF THE ATLANTIC COAST

STATE	Abbreviation	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
North Carolina.....	N. C....	52,426	2,206,287	Charlotte.....	34,014	Raleigh
South Carolina.....	S. C....	30,989	1,515,400	Charleston.....	58,833	Columbia
Georgia.....	Ga.....	59,265	2,609,121	Atlanta.....	154,839	Atlanta
Florida.....	Fla....	58,666	752,619	Jacksonville..	57,699	Tallahassee

The four Southern States of the Atlantic Coast have an area about three times as large as that of New England. Owing to their warm summer climate and excellent soils, they, together with the Southern States of the Mississippi Basin, form the great cotton-producing region of the country. The larger portion of the area lies in the coastal plain and the Piedmont Belt, and hence has gentle slopes. (See Fig. 191.) The region is primarily an agricultural area, though cotton manufacturing is increasing in places, owing to the excellent water power and the abundant supply of raw material. (See Fig. 210.)

THE ATLANTIC COASTAL PLAIN

The coastal plain area of the Southern States of the Atlantic Coast includes all of Florida, more than half of South Carolina and Georgia, and nearly half of North Carolina. (See Figs. 191 and 238.) Except the northwest corner of Georgia, which contains the southern portion of the Great Valley, the remainder of these states is in the Piedmont Belt or the Appalachian Mountains.

Surface and Climate. The coastal plain generally is flat with only a few sand hills rising above the general lowland in South Carolina and Georgia. These sand hill regions are usually covered with forests, par-

ticularly of hard pine, from which turpentine and tar are obtained in large quantities.

The success of agriculture in this region, particularly cotton raising and rice production, depends upon the climate as much as upon the character of the soil. Owing to the influence of the ocean, spring is well developed early in March, and the growing season is long. The cotton crop requires an early spring, a late fall, plenty of heat in the summer, without too much rainfall; conditions

all of which are met in these states.

Owing to the warm winter climate, the coastal portions of Florida are favorite resorts for northern people at that season. This is particularly true of *Jacksonville*, *St. Augustine*, and *Tampa*.

The offshore portion of the coastal plain is

a slightly submerged continental shelf, over which the warm waters of the Gulf Stream sweep. It is studded with coral islands or keys, of which the Florida Keys are the most important. On one of these is situated *Key West*, famous for its tobacco manufactures and for the exportation of sponges, which are secured from the eastern portion of the Gulf of Mexico.

Agriculture. Bordering the coast and on the offshore islands of South Carolina, Florida,



FIG. 237. Picking cotton in Georgia.



and Georgia, are extensive areas devoted to the production of "sea-island cotton." The fiber of this cotton is long and of great strength, so that it is particularly valuable for certain kinds of spinning. (See Fig. 237.)

In the marshy lowlands of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, and North Carolina rice is an important crop. The seed is planted in the early spring when the marshes are flooded, and the fields have to be kept covered by water during a large part of the growing season. The production of rice in these states, however, is small as compared with the enormous crops of Louisiana and Texas.

Sugar cane is grown in the coastal plain sections of Florida and Georgia, these states ranking third and fourth in production. With the exception of Florida, the remainder of the coastal plain area not devoted to rice is planted largely to upland cotton and vegetables.

In Florida the coastal plain rises in few places over a hundred feet above the level

and subtropical in character. Such a climate is particularly favorable for the raising of oranges, lemons, and grape fruit, yet California far outranks Florida in the production of these fruits. Florida is unique among the other states in that it produces pineapples. (See Fig. 242.) It also raises practically all

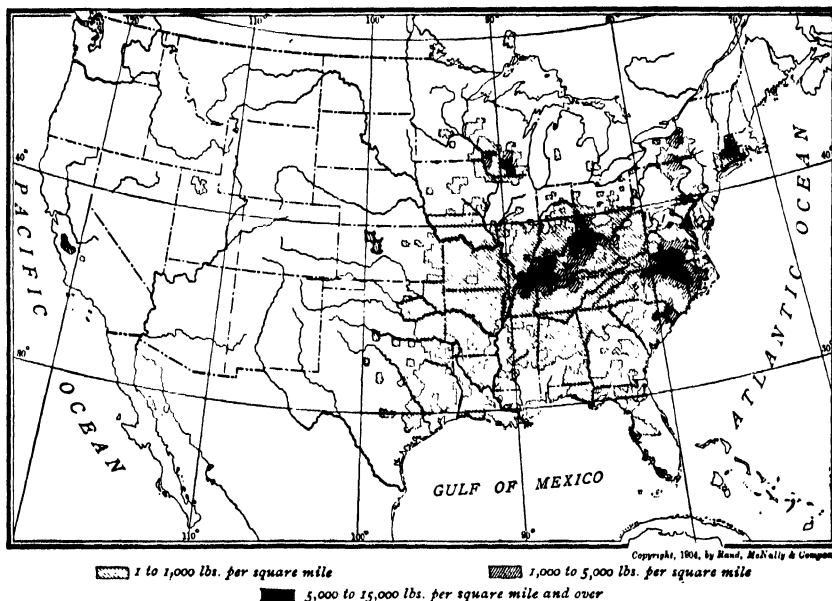


FIG. 239. The yield of tobacco per square mile in the United States.

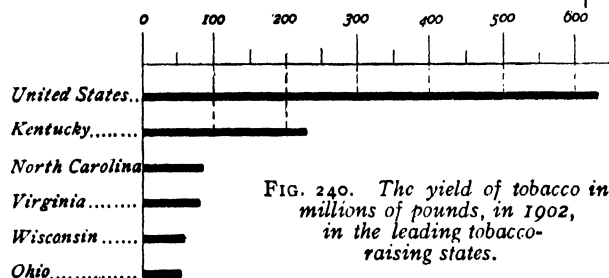


FIG. 240. The yield of tobacco in millions of pounds, in 1902, in the leading tobacco-raising states.

of the sea. As a result large parts of this region are not adequately drained, and extensive swamps exist, some of which have scarcely been explored.

The climate of Florida is warm and moist,

the limes grown in the United States, and leads the country in the production of guavas. These crops depend largely on the climate, and if a cold wave suddenly sweeps into northern Florida great damage follows.

Mineral Products. The rocks of the coastal plain area of Florida and South Carolina contain a great wealth of phosphate, which is valuable as a fertilizer. Florida leads the Union in the production of phosphate.

Cities. The coast of these states is generally bordered by barrier beaches, but the lagoons inside are too shallow to form good harbors. The chief cities of the coastal plain are *Charleston*, S. C., and *Savannah*, Ga., both of them cotton and rice ports, and *Wilmington*, N. C. *Jacksonville*, *Pensacola*, and *Tampa* are the leading commercial cities.

of Florida. Tampa is a great tobacco manufacturing city; the tobacco used there is largely imported from Havana.

THE PIEDMONT BELT

Agriculture. The Piedmont Belt in the Southern States of the Atlantic Coast is a beautiful, rolling country in which agriculture is the principal industry. Cotton is grown in the southern portion, but in the northern tobacco is the chief crop. North Carolina is the second state in the production of tobacco, and Georgia is second in cotton. (See Fig. 249.) Corn is an important crop in this section. Southern corn requires a longer season for growth than northern, hence this variety never reaches maturity in the northern states. It is grown frequently in the North, however, for forage. No one of the southern states produces sufficient corn to be ranked among the leading corn-producing states, although this crop is grown in some abundance in all the states. Fruit growing is steadily increasing. Peaches are an important crop in Georgia.

Manufacturing. The Piedmont Belt is favored with beautiful streams which flow down from the higher Appalachian Mountains to the west, and has an abundance of water power for manufacturing. Within the last few years this water power has been more and more used, till manufacturing has become an important industry, particularly in the Pied-

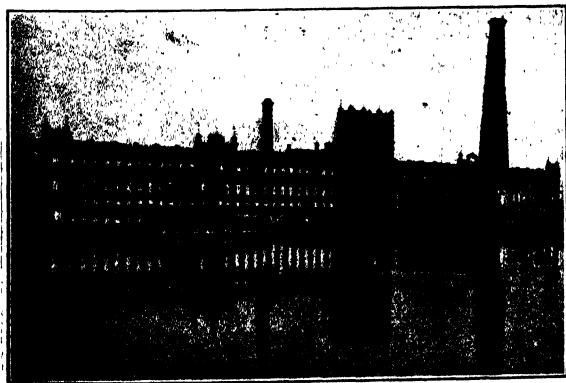


FIG. 241. Cotton mills at Augusta, Georgia. This city because of the number of its mills is sometimes called the "Lowell of the South."



FIG. 242. A field of pineapples in Florida.

mont area of North and South Carolina and Georgia. At the present time South Carolina is, next to Massachusetts, the largest cotton-manufacturing state in the Union. (See Fig. 211.) The chief centers for this industry in the South are *Columbia*, *Greenville*, and *Spartanburg*, S. C., *Charlotte*, N. C., and *Augusta*, *Atlanta*, and *Columbus*, Ga. (See Fig. 241.)

APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS AND GREAT VALLEY

The Appalachian Mountains reach their greatest height and beauty in North Carolina, where they are densely covered with forests. Here are a number of large private parks or forest preserves. These mountains, owing to the quality of the air, their cool summers, the magnificent water supply, and the grandeur of their scenery, are becoming more and more popular as resorts. *Asheville*, N. C., is the center of this region.

Mineral Products. The rocks of this region contain a certain amount of gold, but as yet the mineral industry of this part of the South is only slightly developed.

In the northwestern portion of Georgia the Great Valley contains immense quantities of iron, which is mined to a certain extent, and manufactured at *Rome* and *Atlanta*, Ga. The valleys, deeply set among the Appalachian Mountains, are underlaid by marble

deposits which are extensively quarried. The marble of northwestern Georgia is the whitest and purest found in this country.

Cities and Trade. The trade of the Southern States of the Atlantic Coast is largely with the North and with the Southern States of the Mississippi Basin, either by water or rail. Foreign commerce is small, due largely to poor harbors. *Savannah, Ga., Wilmington, N. C., and Pensacola, Fla.,* are the chief ports in the order of their importance. *Pensacola and Tampa* trade largely with other Gulf ports and with Cuba. *Savannah* has a large coasting trade with New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, and is a leading cotton port. Most of the lumber from this group of states is shipped from *Jacksonville, Fla.,* and the naval stores go from *Savannah.*

The largest inland city of this region and the leading interior wholesale market of this group of states is *Atlanta, Ga.,* situated in the Piedmont Belt and having excellent railroads running in all directions. It is con-

nected with the northern cities by two trunk lines and is so situated that it has excellent communication with Chattanooga and the Great Valley. It is the railroad center of these states, and is sometimes called the Gate City of the South.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Make a list of the states of this region in which cotton is grown. (2) Find the summer temperature and rainfall of the cotton-producing area. (3) Locate the rice-producing area. (4) In what states is rice grown? (5) Why must the United States import so much rice? (6) From what country does it come? To what ports? (7) Locate the sugar cane section. (8) Where are cotton factories located? (9) Account for their location here. (10) What effect will the growth of cotton manufacturing in the South have upon the towns in New England? (11) Locate the chief cotton and rice ports. (12) In what physical divisions is cotton grown? Tobacco? Which physical division has facilities for manufacturing? (13) Where is the densest population of this region? The least dense? (14) Give the chief advantages in the location of Atlanta. (15) Why is it called the "Gate City of the South"?

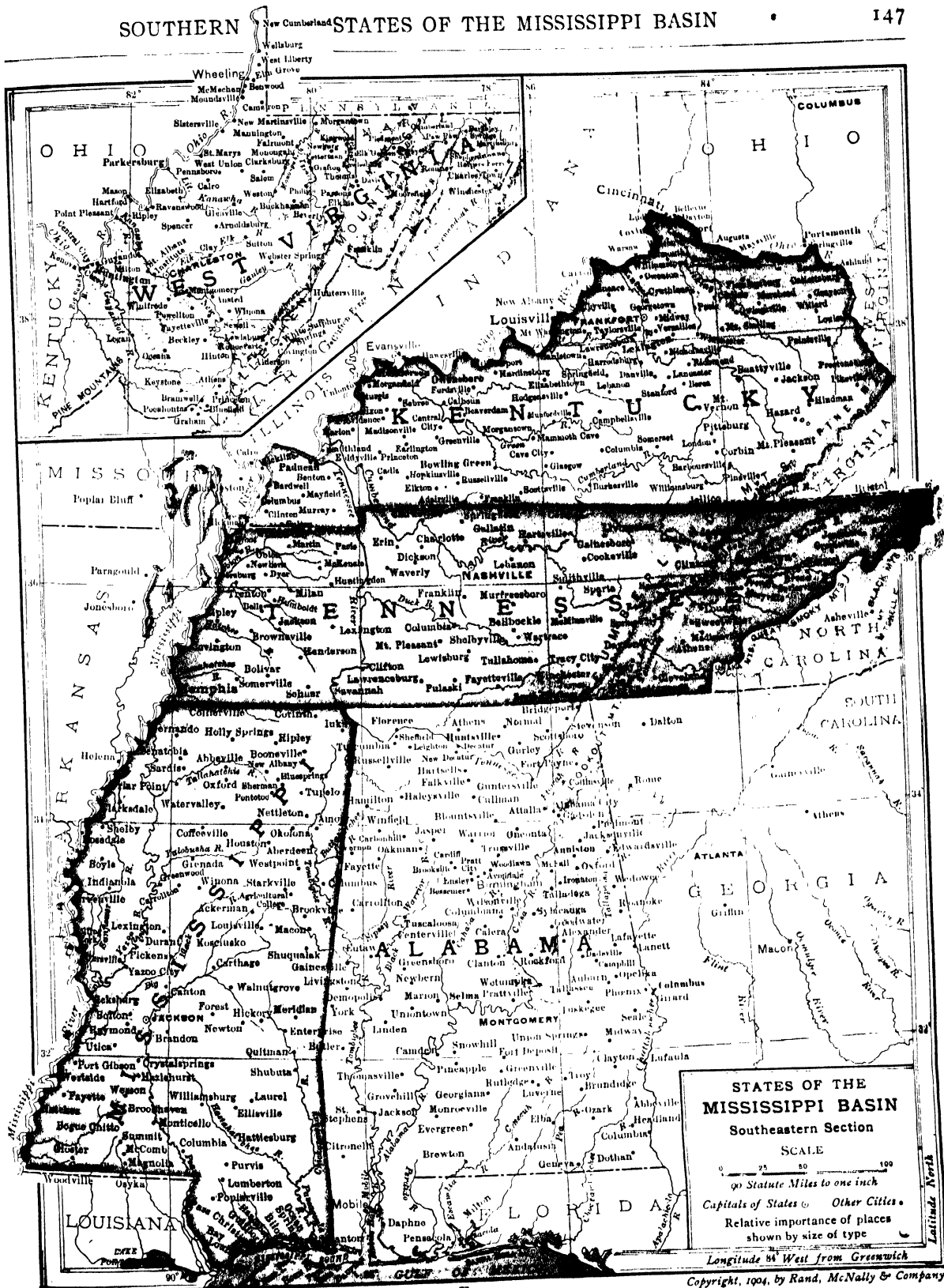
XXXII. SOUTHERN STATES OF THE MISSISSIPPI BASIN

STATE	Abbreviation	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
Tennessee.....	Tenn...	42,022	2,184,789	Memphis.....	131,105	Nashville
Alabama.....	Ala....	51,998	2,138,093	Birmingham..	132,685	Montgomery
Mississippi.....	Miss...	46,865	1,797,114	Meridian.....	23,285	Jackson
Louisiana.....	La....	48,506	1,656,388	New Orleans..	339,075	Baton Rouge
Texas.....	Tex....	265,896	3,896,542	San Antonio..	96,614	Austin
Arkansas.....	Ark....	53,335	1,574,449	Little Rock..	45,941	Little Rock
Oklahoma.....	Okla...	70,057	1,657,155	Oklahoma City	64,205	Oklahoma City

The several states which we may group together as the Southern States of the Mississippi Basin contain slightly more than one-fifth of the whole area of the United States. With the exception of the Cumberland Plateau, which occupies portions of Tennessee and Alabama, and the Ozark and Ouachita mountains of Arkansas and Oklahoma, this whole region is a great plain. (See Figs. 243 and 248.)

THE COASTAL PLAIN

Products of the Soil. Owing to the level surface, the unrivaled soils, and the favorable climate, all of the coastal plain east of central Texas is a magnificent farming area where great crops of cotton, sugar, and rice are produced annually. Sugar cane is raised largely in the river bottoms of the alluvial plain of the Mississippi, and in the lowlands of Texas. (See Figs. 245 and 246.) Louisiana



has more than 100 times the sugar product of Texas, the next state in importance. In the production of rice, Texas leads the country; Louisiana is second in importance. Cotton is raised in all the states, but Texas produces much more than Mississippi, the third state in the Union in cotton production. (See Figs. 247 and 249.) Alabama is fourth, and the other states of the group take lesser rank in this industry. Cotton seed yields cottonseed oil, an important product wherever cotton is raised. Berries and early vegetables for the northern markets are grown throughout these states.

Mineral Products. The only important mineral products in the coastal plain area are petroleum in eastern Texas and in Louisiana, and salt also in Louisiana. Texas now ranks second among petroleum-producing states.

Cities and Trade. The chief cities of the coastal plain are *New Orleans*, La., the fourth

of the great ports of the country, *Galveston*, Tex.; *Mobile*, Ala.; *Houston*, Tex.; *Memphis*, Tenn.; *Meridian* and *Vicksburg*, Miss. These are all centers for the exportation of cotton.

The most important city is *New Orleans*, situated about a hundred miles up the Mississippi River, and easily reached by ocean-going vessels. (See Fig. 244.) It is a center for railroad connections with the North and with the East by lines of road passing up the Great

Valley, or along the Piedmont Belt, or on the coastal plain. It is the chief cotton-exporting city in the world. Its commerce is largely with England, France, and other European countries.

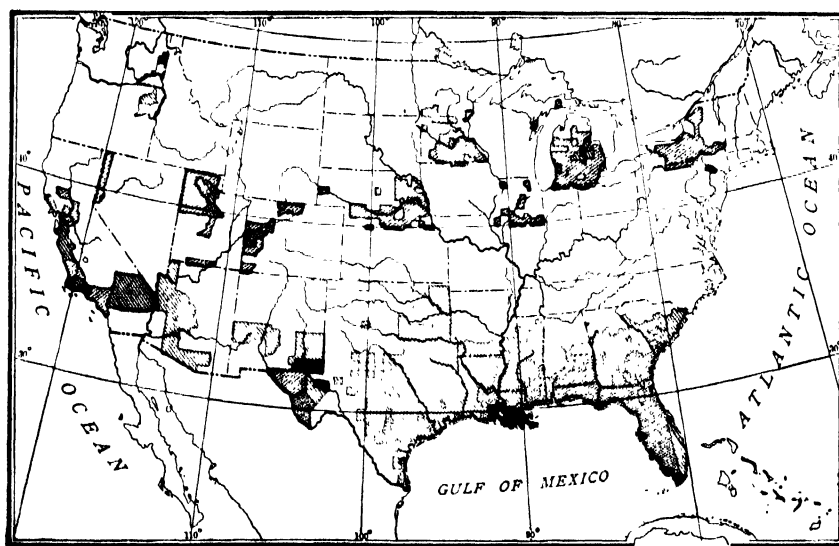
Galveston, Tex., on Galveston Bay, has the best harbor in the state, and ranks next to New York in exports. Owing to its position near the great cotton fields, it is a most important cotton port, with a large foreign commerce, especially with Germany and France. *Houston*, Tex., connected by rail and by water with Galveston, is the leading cotton-packing city of Texas. *Mobile* is the principal shipping point in Alabama, not only for cotton but for other products.

THE GREAT VALLEY

The eastern portion of Tennessee and the northern portion of Alabama are occupied by the Great Valley and



FIG. 244. Along the water front at New Orleans.



Beet sugar: Less than 1/4 per cent, 1/4 per cent to 5 per cent, 5 per cent to 15 per cent

Cane sugar: Less than 1/4 per cent, 1/4 per cent to 5 per cent, 5 per cent to 15 per cent and over

FIG. 245. Proportion of improved land in the United States devoted to the sugar industry.

the Cumberland Plateau. The Great Valley is a rich agricultural area and contains great quantities of limestone and iron. Marble is quarried at *Knoxville*, Tenn., while the local supplies of coal, iron, and limestone make *Birmingham*, Ala., one of the great iron-manufacturing cities of the Union. *Birmingham* is thus becoming the Pittsburgh of the southern states. The hardwood forests found on the Cumberland Plateau and the Appalachian Mountains supply an abundance of material for the furniture factories of *Knoxville* and *Chattanooga*, Tenn., and other cities in the Great Valley. The Great Valley in eastern Tennessee is important as a highway of travel and transportation. Hence it contains all the large cities to be found in this section of the state.

THE CUMBERLAND PLATEAU

The Cumberland Plateau is a broad highland facing the Great Valley in a continuous cliff, uncut by any river except the narrow Tennessee, which is navigable to *Knoxville* at certain seasons.

Industries. The Cumberland Plateau has few railroads, owing to the difficulty of reaching its top. The surface is a succession of hills and valleys and is covered by dense forests of hardwoods. These forests contain some of the finest timber in the state and also afford excellent grazing. The plateau is occupied by an extremely scattered

population, who get their living mainly by cultivating the crops necessary for their own consumption, or by raising cattle and hogs. There are no large cities, and good-sized towns exist only where coal mines have been opened. A vast wealth of coal underlies

this region, and mining has been successfully developed at a number of places.

The Cumberland Plateau merges on the west into a series of rich limestone lowlands. *Nashville*, the

capital of Tennessee, in a fine agricultural area in a rolling section of these lowlands, has important manufactures of flour and furniture. This region also produces phosphate.

Kentucky far outranks any other state in the production of hemp and tobacco (see Fig. 240), and Louisville is the chief leaf tobacco market of the world.

THE PLAINS AND THE OZARKS

In the low-lying portions of Arkansas agriculture with horticulture is the principal

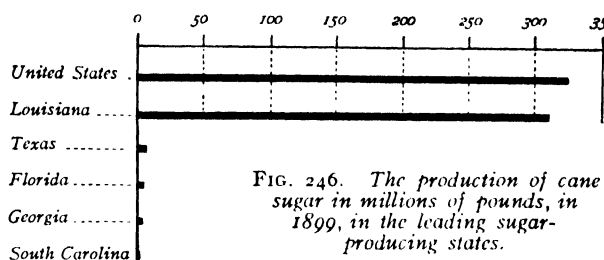


FIG. 246. The production of cane sugar in millions of pounds, in 1899, in the leading sugar-producing states.

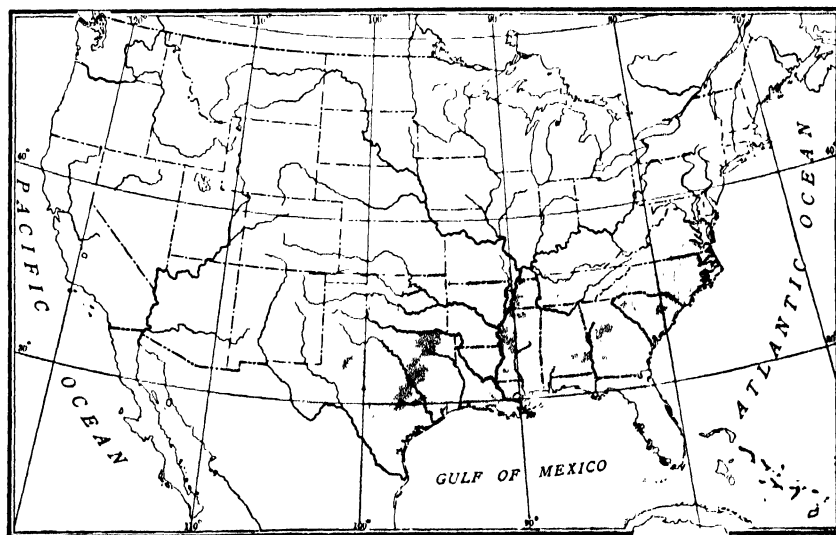


FIG. 247. The yield of cotton per square mile in the United States.

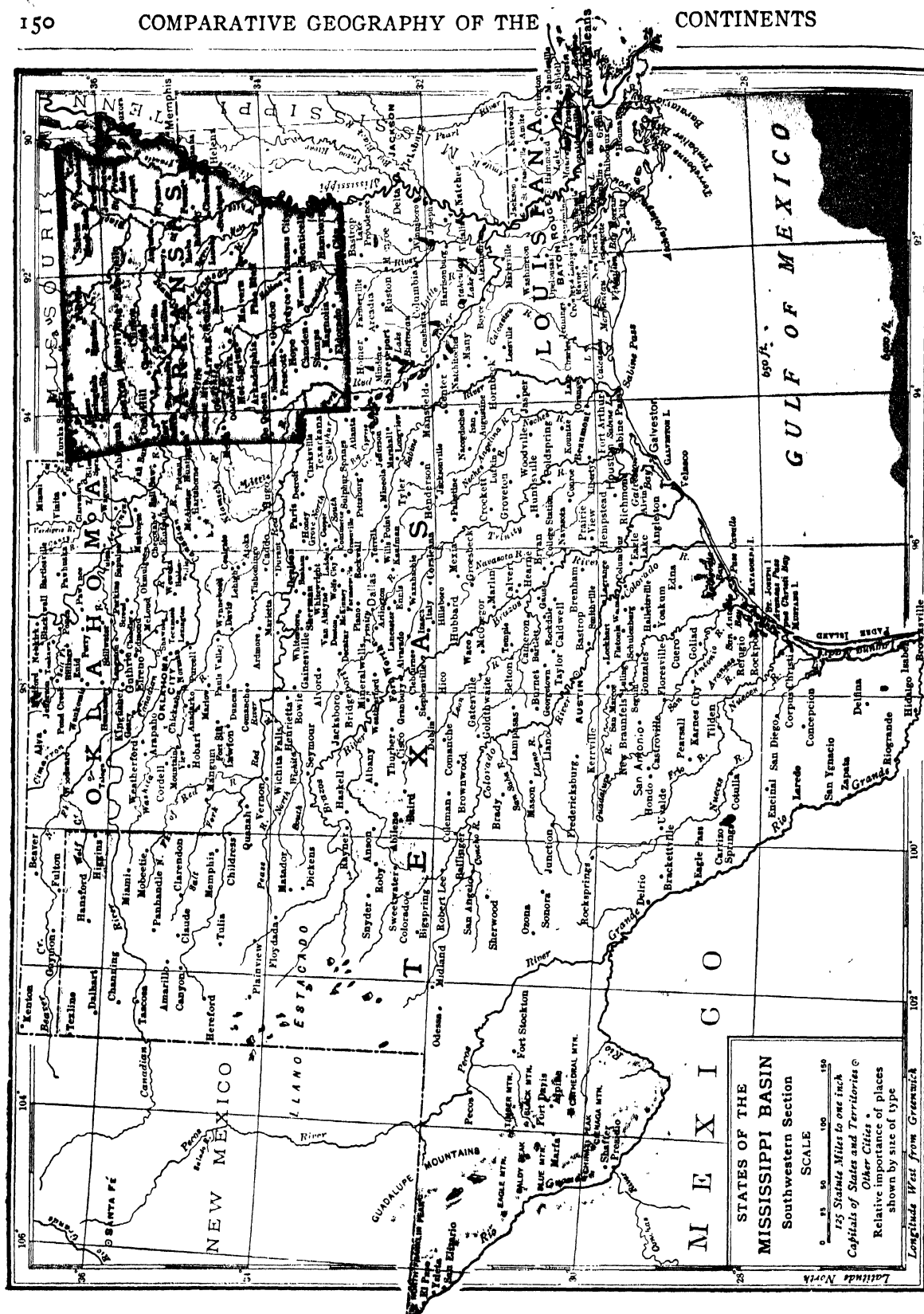
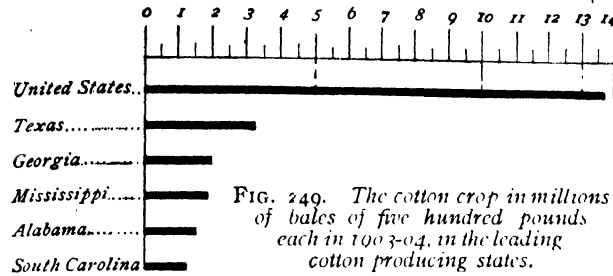


FIG. 248.

Revised, 1977

occupation though coal is an important product in Oklahoma as well as in Arkansas.



In the forested region lumbering is an important industry. Little Rock is the capital and chief town in Arkansas. Hot Springs is famous as a health resort.

Grazing. Western Texas and Oklahoma are primarily grazing regions, owing to the dry climate. As one passes through Texas he finds himself at Houston in the center of a great cotton-producing region, with luxuriant vegetation everywhere. Between Houston and San Antonio the cotton becomes less conspicuous and a little west of San Antonio the arid country begins. Here

only those plants are seen which will grow with a scanty supply of moisture, while in western Texas the vegetation is almost that of the desert. In northwestern Texas, in the valley of the Canadian River, there has been a rapid development of agriculture and manufactures in the last few years. This great western region is so dry that grazing is by far the most important occupation, and cattle, horses, and mules are raised in larger numbers in Texas than in any other state. (See Figs. 250 and 251.)

Texas is one of the principal food-produc-

ing regions of the Union because of its development of the cattle industry, although throughout a large part of its area agriculture is impossible except by irrigation. In early years the cattle were allowed to wander at will over the great plains, feeding on the excellent grasses abounding there, being tended by herdsmen or cowboys. Later large parts of the area were surrounded by fences, some of the great ranches containing many square miles, so that caring for the cattle is much easier. The cattle throughout this region are largely

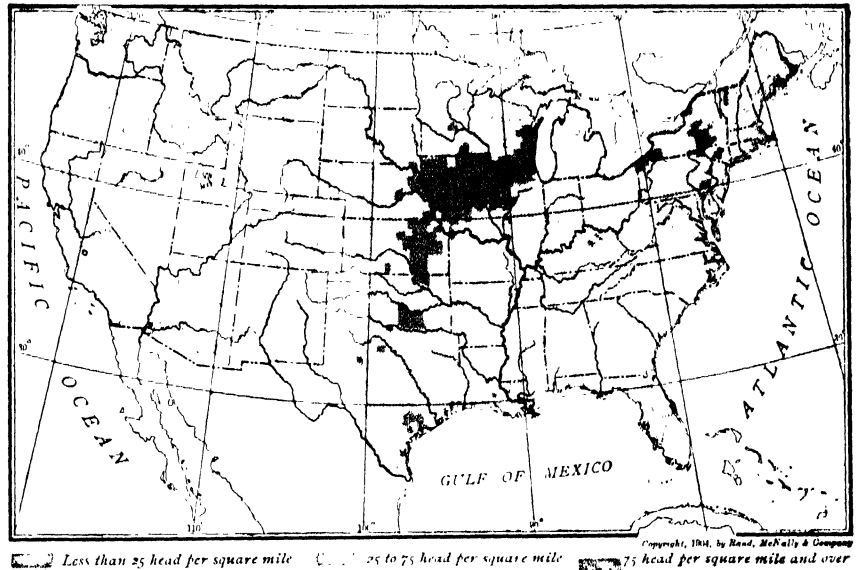


FIG. 250. The number of cattle per square mile in the United States.

shipped alive to the great slaughtering cities of the northern Mississippi Basin, although some are sent directly to the seaports and shipped alive to foreign countries. Throughout this vast grazing area, large enough to hold many of the states, there are naturally but few cities. The only important one in this area in Texas is El Paso, a railroad center on the Mexican boundary line.

The Forty-sixth State. Oklahoma is larger than Missouri, and like that state has vast agricultural and mineral resources. In recent years it has made great strides in agriculture.

Corn is the leading crop, and of this group of states only Texas exceeds it in production. Coal, petroleum, and natural gas abound. Among gas-producing states Oklahoma ranks seventh, and as a producer of petroleum is ninth. *Oklahoma City*, the capital, and *Guthrie*, are towns of phenomenal growth in a region of great fertility.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Name the advantages in the location of New Orleans. (2) Trace its railroad connections with the North, the East, and the West. (3) What does it export to European countries? (4) Find out, if you can, how the Mississippi River

has been made accessible to ocean steamers. (5) What were the drawbacks to the harbor of Galveston? (6) Why is it an important port? (7) What effect will the opening of the Panama Canal have upon New Orleans? (8) What effect upon Galveston?

(9) Why is Birmingham called the "Pittsburgh of the South"? (10) Why should a city have grown up at Chattanooga? (11) State the importance of the Great Valley as a highway of travel.

(12) Make a list of the cotton ports of the United States. (13) Make a list of all the cotton manufacturing towns of the country. (14) Why is Texas a great stock-raising state? (15) Where are the cattle shipped to be slaughtered?

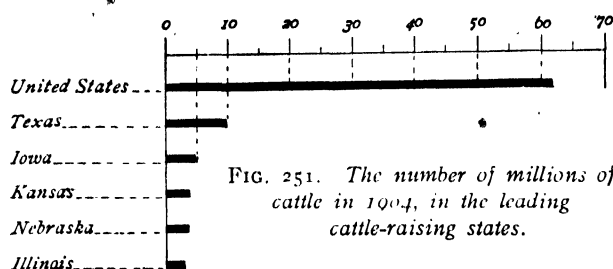


FIG. 251. The number of millions of cattle in 1904, in the leading cattle-raising states.

XXXIII. NORTHERN STATES OF THE MISSISSIPPI BASIN

STATE	Abbreviation	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
West Virginia.....	W. Va..	24,170	1,221,119	Wheeling.....	41,641	Charleston
Ohio.....	Ohio...	41,040	4,767,121	Cleveland.....	560,663	Columbus
Kentucky.....	Ky....	40,598	2,289,905	Louisville....	223,928	Frankfort
Indiana.....	Ind....	36,354	2,700,876	Indianapolis..	233,650	Indianapolis
Illinois.....	Ill....	56,665	5,638,591	Chicago.....	2,185,283	Springfield
Michigan.....	Mich...	57,980	2,810,173	Detroit.....	465,766	Lansing
Wisconsin.....	Wis....	56,066	2,333,860	Milwaukee....	373,857	Madison
Minnesota.....	Minn...	84,682	2,075,708	Minneapolis...	301,408	St. Paul
Iowa.....	Iowa...	56,147	2,224,771	Des Moines...	86,368	Des Moines
Missouri.....	Mo....	69,420	3,293,335	St. Louis.....	687,029	Jefferson City
Kansas.....	Kans...	82,158	1,690,949	Kansas City..	82,331	Topeka
Nebraska.....	Nebr...	77,520	1,192,214	Omaha.....	124,096	Lincoln
South Dakota.....	S. Dak..	77,615	583,888	Sioux Falls...	14,094	Pierre
North Dakota.....	N. Dak.	70,837	577,056	Fargo.....	14,331	Bismarck

The group of states in the Northern Mississippi Basin includes five out of the first ten states in population, six of the first ten in manufacturing, and seven of the first ten in agriculture. It forms one of the most important groups of states in the Union. Although they were hardly settled three-quarters of a century ago, they now contain about one-third of the entire population of the United States. (See Figs. 252 and 264.)

Surface and Soils. As we have already seen, the surface and climate of the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin are generally favorable for agriculture, except in the few highlands and in the western section where the climate is too dry. The fine glacial soils of the eastern and northern portions are exceptionally fertile and will grow excellent crops for many years in succession without being as easily worn out as are the



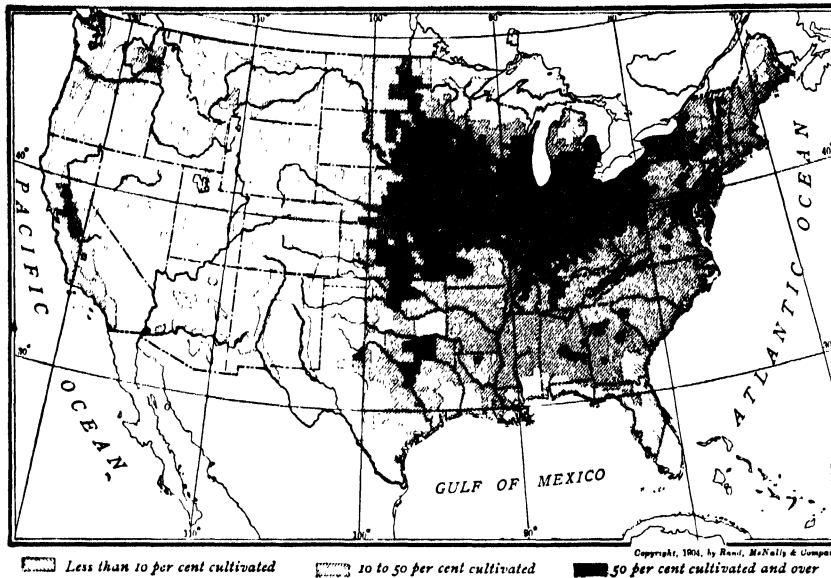


FIG. 253. Proportion of agricultural lands to the total area in the United States.

soils of the southern states. The highland areas are covered with forests and some of them contain mineral wealth of great value.



FIG. 254. Threshing on the prairies of Illinois.

Therefore mining and lumbering are occupations of importance in certain states. Owing to the favorable soil and climate, this region is the chief area for the growing of wheat, corn, oats, and barley, and is very important for the raising of horses, cattle, and hogs.

Climate and Vegetation. Throughout the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin the climate is warm in summer, and the rainfall is abundant except in the extreme western portion. Through the cen-

tral portion of North and South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas the rainfall is usually sufficient for agriculture. Here, as in the eastern section, where rainfall is abundant and well distributed, vegetation flourishes and large crops are raised annually. Throughout these areas natural conditions also encourage dairying and this industry is steadily growing in importance.

In the western portion, where the rainfall is scanty, grazing is the usual occupation and agriculture is carried on by means of irrigation. The water for irrigation and for the cattle is secured largely from artesian wells. Artesian wells are sunk to the underlying layers of rock which contain water, and the water either flows of its own pressure or is pumped to the surface. The wind is so strong and so constant in this area, where the moving air is not impeded by any highlands, that windmills are commonly used for pumping water.

Forests are found in the highlands where the moisture is sufficiently great to furnish

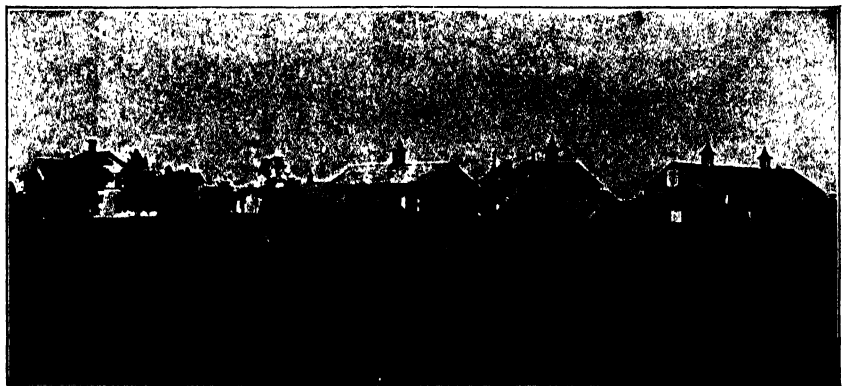


FIG. 255. A typical farm scene in Indiana.

them the means of growth. In the north-east the principal trees are maples, birches, pine, spruce, hemlock, and beech, all of which furnish timber of value in building. The characteristic trees of the southern highlands are chestnut, ash, and hickory. The Indians of the plains formerly made annual trips to the great forests of the Black Hills to secure poles for their lodges, oftentimes traveling great distances in order to obtain them.

Outside of these regions few trees are found except along the water courses where the underground water is sufficient for their needs. Oftentimes in the western portion of the states a line of trees may be seen defining the course of a stream. Such a line is a sure sign of water at no great depth, even when none appears on the surface. During the early exploration of

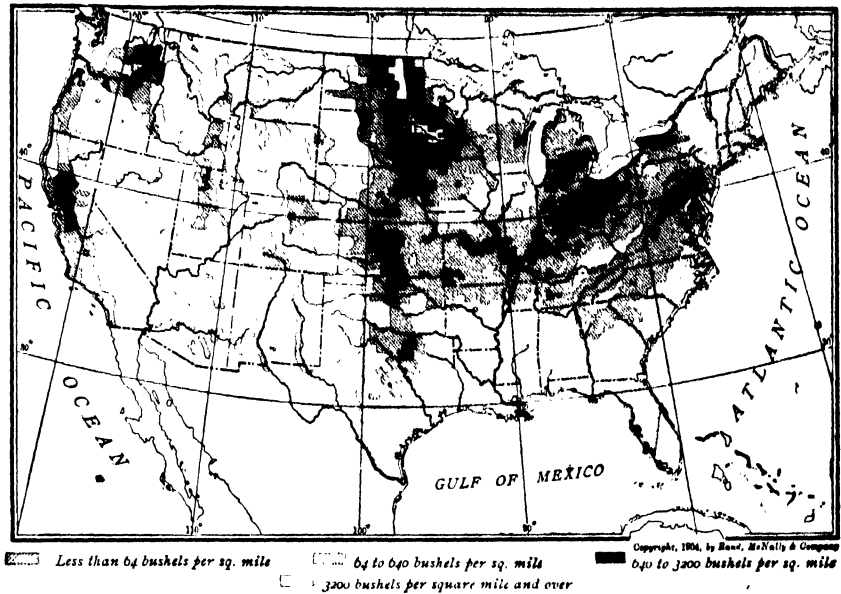


FIG. 256 The yield of wheat per square mile in the United States.

Dakota and Nebraska rank fifth and sixth. Here natural conditions favor the raising of cereals. The spring comes early and the growing season is long. The summers are warm, sunshine abounds, and the soil is firm, so that it holds the roots of the stalks and permits them to be swayed by the wind without being blown over. In the wheat-growing states the whole area for miles in every direction seems like one great wheat field, broken occasionally by the farmhouses and farm buildings. (See Figs. 256 and 257.)

The slopes in the wheat area are so gentle that the crop may be planted and reaped by machinery. Hence the cost of production is not so great as in the eastern states, where reaping has to be done largely by hand. The wheat is threshed by machinery (see Fig. 254) and sent to the markets by rail.

At the larger cities the wheat is made into flour or is transshipped to the East for local use or for shipment abroad. The principal ports for wheat are *Superior, Wis.*, *Duluth, Minn.* (see Fig. 258), and *Chicago, Ill.*, because of their excellent water connection through the Great Lakes to the East. *Minneapolis, Minn.*, at the Falls of St. Anthony on the

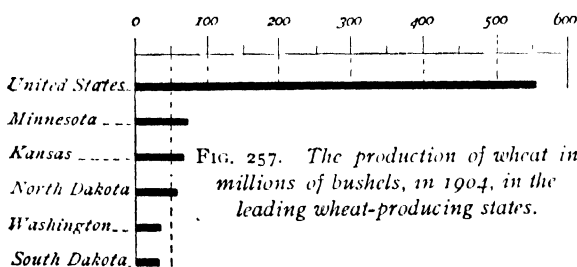


FIG. 257. The production of wheat in millions of bushels, in 1904, in the leading wheat-producing states.

the plains many people suffered severely from the lack of water when a few moments of digging in the sand would have furnished a supply.

Agriculture. Agriculture, and especially the raising of cereals, is the chief industry in this section and fine farms abound. (See Figs. 255 and 261.) Wheat is the most valuable cereal, and in its production Minnesota, Kansas, and North Dakota lead the Union. South



FIG. 258. Duluth, the city at the head of the Great Lakes.

Mississippi, is the greatest wheat-milling city in the world. Owing to its position near the wheat fields, and to its excellent railway connection with the region of production, and also to its natural water power, it early took front rank as a milling center. That position

southern portion of this region than in the northern. It also requires warm nights as well as days, and plenty of sunshine during the growing season. These conditions are all found in this group of states. The chief corn-producing states of the Union in the order

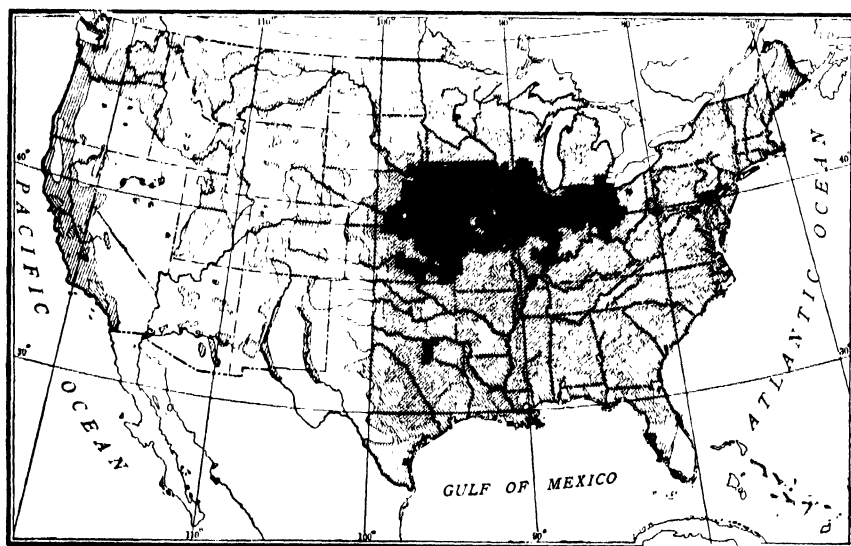


FIG. 259. The yield of corn per square mile in the United States.

it has maintained, though a large part of the milling is now done by steam power. Milwaukee, Wis., which is also near the wheat fields and has a more favorable position for shipping, is the third city in the country for wheat milling, while Chicago, Ill., Toledo, Ohio, and St. Louis, Mo., follow it closely.

Corn, which is used mostly as a feed for cattle in other countries, is used also as food in this country and Mexico. It is produced in greater quantities than any other cereal in the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin. It requires more warmth than wheat, and is, therefore grown more extensively in the

of their importance are Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and Missouri, which, with Indiana, Kansas, and Ohio, are often grouped together and called the corn belt. Much of the corn is used in the region as feed for hogs and cattle; some of it is made into hominy and breakfast foods, but nearly a quarter of the crop is shipped to the East for local use or for export. The larger portion of the corn bought in the feed stores in the East comes from this

area, though much comes from the southern states. (See Figs. 259, 260, and 272.)

Oats, barley, and rye are also important cereals in some of the states. Iowa and Illinois lead in the production of oats. (See Figs. 262 and 263.) Minnesota leads the

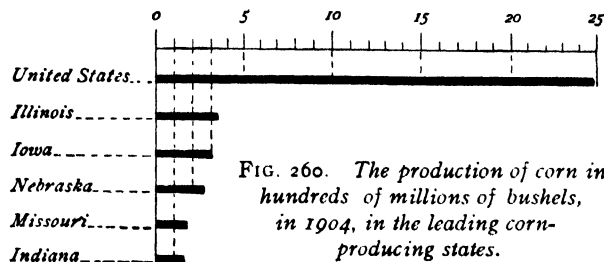


FIG. 260. The production of corn in hundreds of millions of bushels, in 1904, in the leading corn-producing states.

Union in the production of barley, and North Dakota, Wisconsin, and Iowa hold third, fourth, and fifth places. Wisconsin is the second and Nebraska the fourth state in the raising of rye.

Another crop of great commercial importance in these

states is flax. Flax, which is raised in this country for the oil contained in its seeds, is

we have mentioned, however, for many other crops are of importance. Michigan is

the third state in the Union in the production of beets for sugar, the first in the raising of peas and of beans. It also furnishes more than sixty per cent of the oil of peppermint produced in the world. Iowa holds second place as a producer of hay. (See Figs. 270 and 271.)

In northern Ohio along Lake Erie, as in New York along Lake Ontario, the climatic conditions favor the growing of grapes and small fruits. As a result,

the state of Ohio is third in the Union in the production of grapes and apples,

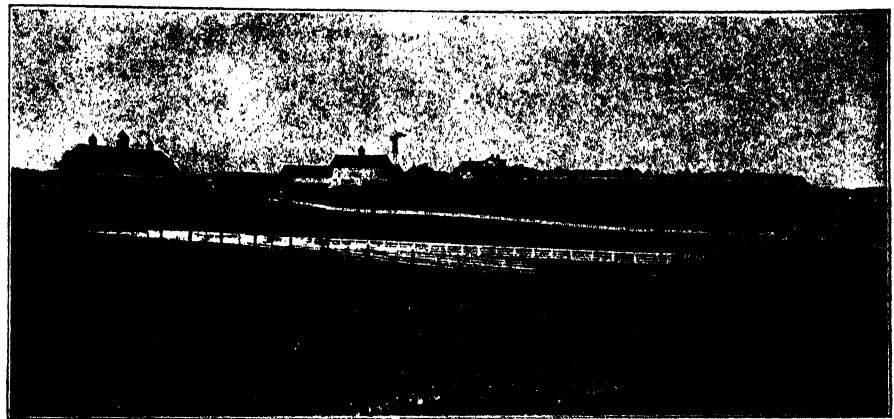
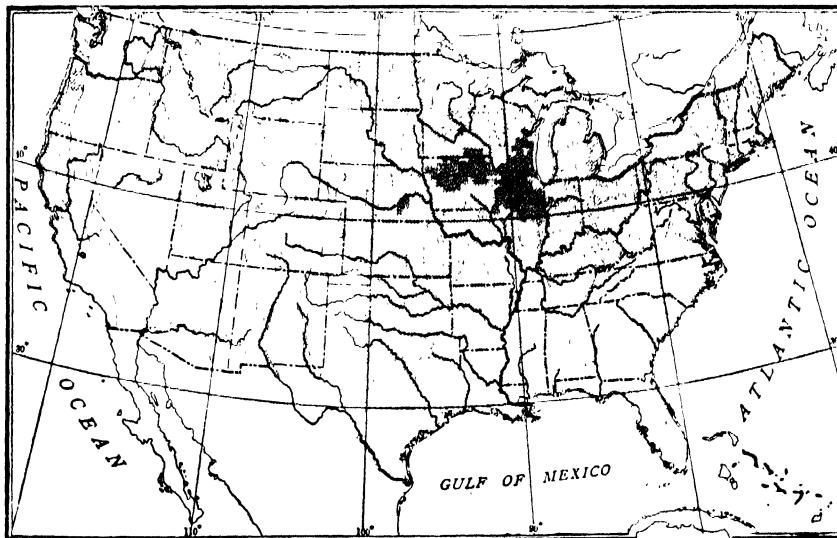


FIG. 261. A typical farm scene in Iowa.



Less than 64 bushels per sq. mile 64 to 640 bushels per sq. mile 3200 bushels per square mile and over

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640 to 3200 bushels per sq. mile

FIG. 262. The yield of oats per square mile in the United States.

grown extensively in North Dakota, Minnesota, and South Dakota. North Dakota, in 1889 seventh among flax-producing states, to-day leads with a crop that exceeds one-half of the total product of the country. In many parts of the world flax is also grown for the fiber it furnishes, but in our country very little is raised for this purpose.

Not all the agricultural land of the northern Mississippi Basin is devoted to the crops

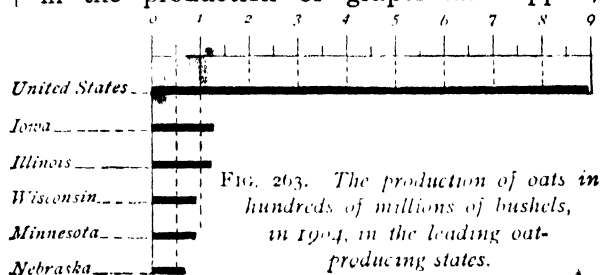


FIG. 263. The production of oats in hundreds of millions of bushels, in 1904, in the leading oat-producing states.



FIG. 264.

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and second in small fruits. Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana also have large apple crops, and likewise rank high among the leading states of the country in the production of grapes and small fruits.

Wisconsin and Ohio raise large amounts of tobacco, but are outranked by Kentucky, North Carolina, and Virginia.

Animals and Animal Products. Owing to the abundance of cereals raised, these states are of great importance for their cattle, horses, hogs, and sheep. In the western section the cattle are raised very largely on ranches, as they are to the south in Texas and Oklahoma. In the east they are usually raised on fenced farms. Next to Texas, the four



FIG. 266. The stock yards at Chicago.

Illinois and Iowa are the second and third states in the raising of horses, and Missouri raises more mules than any other state except Texas. Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, and Nebraska, owing to the great corn crop, raise more hogs. (See Figs. 268 and 269.)

Although great numbers of hogs, sheep, and cattle are sent to the eastern cities alive, and some are exported alive, by far the larger number are slaughtered in the meat-packing cities of Chicago, Ill., Kansas City, Kans., South Omaha, Nebr., St. Joseph, Mo., and Indian-

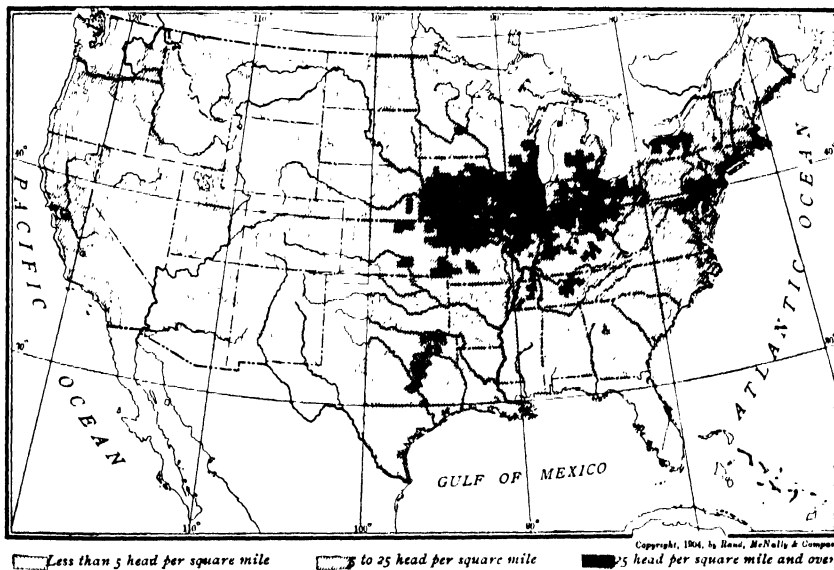


FIG. 265. The number of horses and mules per square mile in the United States.

states of Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and Illinois lead in cattle raising. Iowa ranks first in the Union in the production of butter, and Wisconsin is second in the production of cheese. These products are sent in great abundance to the eastern states for consumption there. Ohio and Michigan raise large numbers of sheep, and the wool produced in these states is of great importance in the woolen mills of the East.

apolis, Ind. The meat products can be readily shipped east for consumption or export since

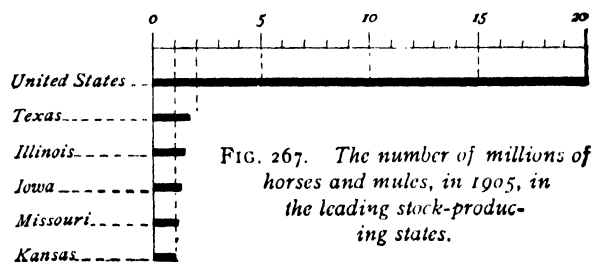


FIG. 267. The number of millions of horses and mules, in 1905, in the leading stock-producing states.

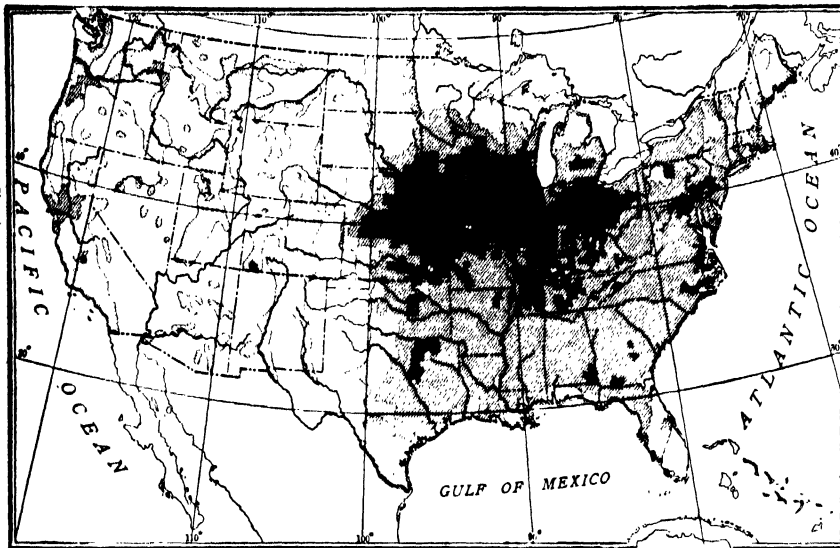


FIG. 268. The number of hogs per square mile in the United States.

the invention of the refrigerator car, which makes it possible to transport meat long distances without spoiling.

Forest Products. The United States furnishes more timber and lumber products than any other country. The most important states in the lumbering industry are Wisconsin, Michigan, and Minnesota. (See Figs. 273, 274, and 275.) A large portion of the lumber is shipped to planing mills. Much of it is made into sashes, doors, blinds, and boards, in the making of which *Chicago* is the second city in the Union. The hardwood is largely made into furniture at *Chicago* and at *Grand Rapids*, Mich., the second and third furniture-making cities of the country. In Wisconsin and Ohio the making of paper from wood pulp is also an important industry. The making of maple syrup is an important occupation in Ohio, this state producing more than any other.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Name the states of this region (2) What advantages do they possess in surface, soil, and position? (3) How do the states east of the Mississippi compare with those west in these advantages? (4) What difference in industries is found between the eastern part of this region

and the western? (5) In which section are artesian wells numerous? Why? (6) What is an artesian well? (7) Which part of this area is practically treeless? (8) Compare methods of farming in this region with those in New England. (9) Why should Minneapolis be a big milling city and Duluth and Chicago wheat-exporting cities? (10) Describe how the lake steamers at Duluth and Chicago are loaded with wheat. (11) Where must the wheat destined for Europe be reshipped? (12) What influence has this had upon the growth of towns? (13) Make a

list of the chief uses of corn. (14) What states of this region are in the corn belt? (15) What makes the climate of Ohio and New York mild enough to ripen grapes? (16) What states of this region are in the wheat belt? (17) What states of this region produce iron?

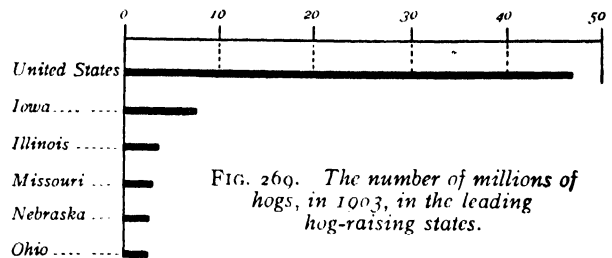


FIG. 269. The number of millions of hogs, in 1903, in the leading hog-raising states.

XXXIV. NORTHERN STATES OF THE MISSISSIPPI BASIN (Continued)

Mineral Products. The Northern States of the Mississippi Basin are extremely rich in mineral products, especially in coal, natural gas, petroleum, iron, copper, lead, zinc, gold, salt, and building stones. (See Figs. 221 and 227.) Nearly three-fourths of the iron ore produced in the country comes from the Lake Superior region. Minnesota and Michigan are the two leading iron-producing

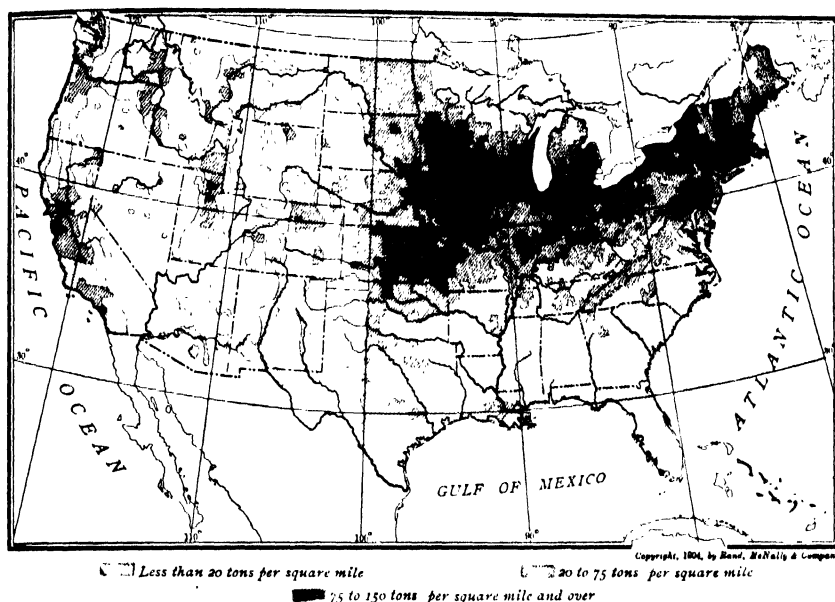


FIG. 270. The production of hay and forage per square mile in the United States.

states. In some cases the ore lies deep underground and has to be mined like any other mineral. In other cases, as in certain parts of Minnesota and Michigan, it lies on the surface and can be loaded directly into cars by means of steam shovels. This makes the mining cheap and easy. (See Fig. 287.)

Coal of the kind to make coke, which is used in the smelting of iron, is not abundant near these iron fields. Hence the ore is sent to the large iron-making cities of the East for manufacture. *Duluth* (see Fig. 278) and *Two Harbors*, Minn., *Ashland* and *Superior*, Wis., *Escanaba* and *Marquette*, Mich., because of their position on the lakes and nearness to the ore fields, are the chief ore-shipping cities. Most of the product is sent east to other lake ports near the steel-making cities of *Ashta-*

pays to mine it, even though the expense is great. In late years the use of copper has greatly increased, owing to the development of electricity. The best telephone and telegraph wires are made of copper, and copper is used in the arts in many ways.

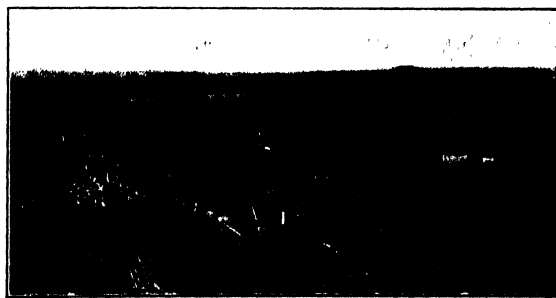


FIG. 272. A farm scene in the corn area of Missouri.

Coal is generally distributed throughout this group of states. The coal is all bituminous, however, and not so valuable as the hard coals of Pennsylvania. Illinois, West Virginia, and Ohio are, next to Pennsylvania, the chief coal-producing states of the Union. (See Figs. 221 and 222.) In West Virginia much of the coal is made into coke for the iron and steel mills. The eastern states of this group are important for their supplies of petroleum and

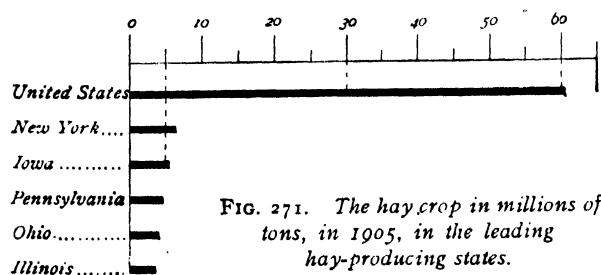


FIG. 271. The hay crop in millions of tons, in 1905, in the leading hay-producing states.

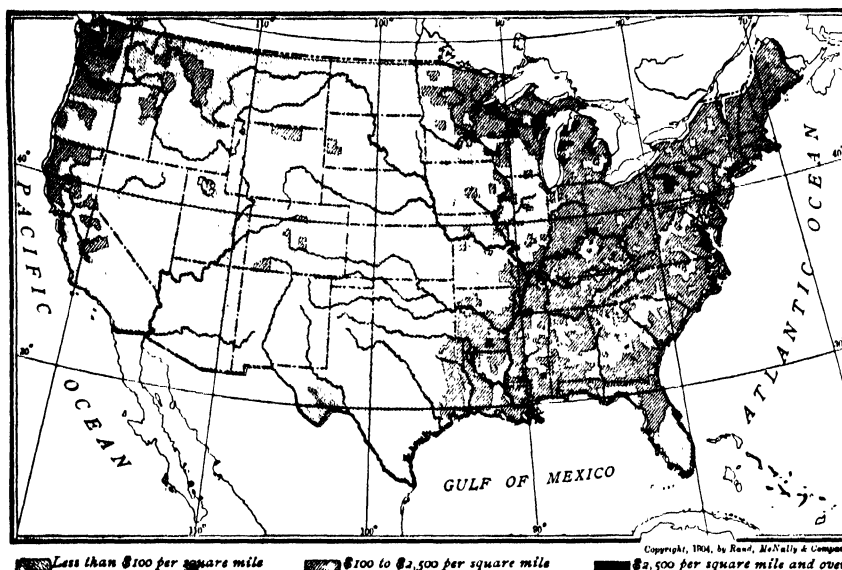


FIG. 273. The value of lumber and timber products per square mile in the United States.

natural gas. Ohio and West Virginia are the leading states of the group in the production of petroleum, and Indiana and West Virginia are the first in natural gas. These fields are a continuation of the fields found in Pennsylvania and New York. (See Fig. 227.) The petroleum is largely sent to eastern cities, where it is refined for the world's trade, in which the United States leads. The oil is sent across the country by means of pipes, thereby saving the cost of transportation by rail. It is distributed to the refineries in the same way that water in large cities and many towns is distributed to the houses. Natural gas, in the regions where it is found, is largely used for illuminating and for fuel, not only in the houses but also in the factories. The supply of natural gas is not so abundant as that of oil. In fact, natural gas has given out

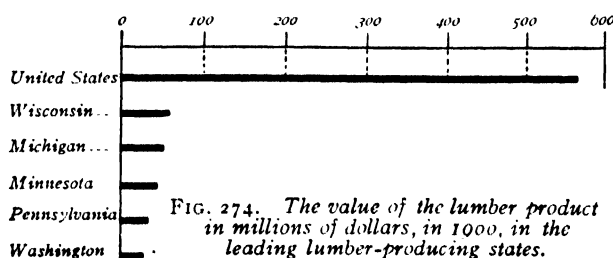


FIG. 274. The value of the lumber product in millions of dollars, in 1900, in the leading lumber-producing states.

in some places, so that a few cities have been obliged to return to the use of coal as fuel.

Another rock product of value is clay. It is found in several states, but is of special value in Ohio, where a superior variety used in making pottery occurs. Terra cotta, fire clay, and pottery are leading products about Zanesville and East Liverpool, Ohio. Building stones exist in several of the states. Indiana pro-

duces a fine limestone. Kansas, Illinois, and Missouri yield most of the zinc used in the



FIG. 275. A paper mill in Minnesota beside a river filled with logs.

United States, and these states as well as Wisconsin are important for their lead ores. Michigan, Ohio, and Kansas are, next to New York, the leading salt-producing states.

Manufacturing. Besides the manufactures associated with the animal products and lumber, already mentioned, this group of states has such a wealth of other finished products that Illinois is the third and Ohio the fifth manufacturing state in the Union. (See Fig. 233.) The value of the manufac-

tures of this group of states as a whole, however, is second to that of the Middle States of the Atlantic Coast. The success of manufacturing is due largely to the nearness of the raw materials, to the easily accessi-

ble fuels, and to the excellent facilities for trade which these states enjoy. Owing to the position that agriculture holds in this group of states, Illinois and Ohio lead in the production of agricultural implements. Illinois and Michigan lead in the making of railroad cars, and Ohio and Indiana in the making of carriages.

Trade and Cities. The states of this group have admirable facilities for sending their products to market. The Great Lakes furnish the finest system of interior waterways in the world, and are available for commerce from about the first of April to the first of December. Hence the cities about the lakes have increased in size and importance at a phenomenal rate. The completion of a canal about the rapids of St. Marys River has made it possible for the iron, the copper, and the wheat from the Lake Superior region to be shipped to Buffalo without transshipment of cargoes.

The Mississippi system, with its many thousands of miles of navigable streams

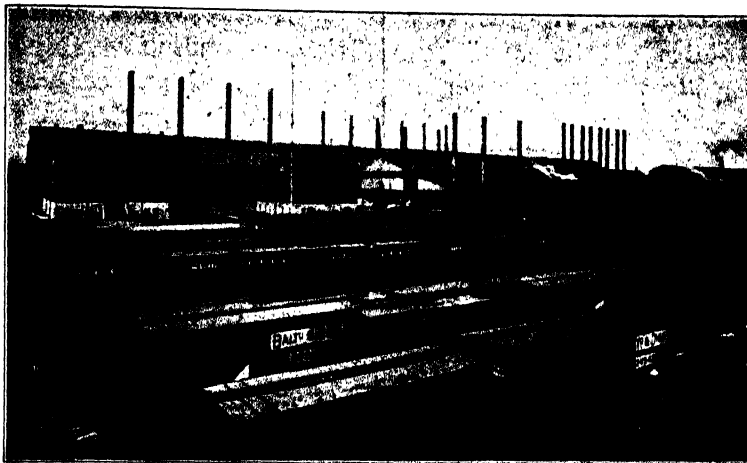


FIG. 276. Looking toward the Illinois Steel Works, South Chicago.

penetrating the whole region, offers another great water route leading toward the southern ports. Practically all the large cities of the region have therefore grown up along the lakes or the rivers of

the Mississippi Basin. The long stretches of nearly level land where the slopes are gentle have favored the development of railways, so that this area is covered with a network of roads, especially in the eastern part, where the products to be sent to market are most valuable. In many of the states the railroads have been paralleled in recent years by electric roads, so that the farmers have unusual facilities for shipping their products.

Chicago, Ill., is the chief city of the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin, and the second city in size in the Union. It is located at the southern end of Lake Michigan, and because of the unusually favorable opportunities presented for manufacturing and trade, its growth has been phenomenal. It

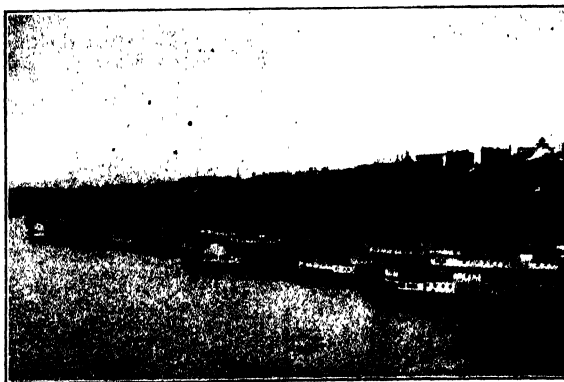


FIG. 277. Along the water front, St. Louis.

is the nearest large city to the corn-growing area, and is within reach of the lumber, coal, and iron regions. All railroads from the Northwest as well as many from the East center at this point, as all goods shipped by land between these regions must go around the lake. Chicago also

has ready rail communication with the cities of the Southern States of the Mississippi Basin. It is the greatest railway center in the world.

When the great Chicago Drainage Canal, which connects the city with the Illinois River, is opened for navigation purposes, Chicago will have a water route available for large vessels connecting it with the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico.

Because of all these natural advantages dependent on its location, Chicago has developed in less than a century from a small frontier fort to its present position as the second city of the country in population and manufactures and the fifth largest city in the world. It is first in the slaughtering of cattle and hogs (see Fig. 266) and in the production of agricultural implements; second in the making of ready-made clothing; and third in the production of steel and iron goods. (See Fig. 276.) It also has many other manufacturing industries of great value, and is the financial center of this group of states, as New York is of the eastern states.

Chicago is also an interesting city because of its large educational institutions, museums, and high buildings. It is regularly laid out on the prairies, and contains many beautiful parks and avenues. (See Figs. 279 and 280.)

St. Louis, Mo., the fourth city of the Union, is important for its production of flour, meat products, iron and steel, finished tobacco, and malt liquors. Owing to its position on the Mississippi and close to the mouth of the Missouri, it has excellent facilities for water trade. It has fine railway facilities; the famous Eads' Bridge across the Mississippi is 2,225 feet long, and the Union Railway Station covers eleven acres of ground. (See Fig. 277.)

Milwaukee, Wis., from its position on Lake Michigan, is also favorably located for manufacturing and for carrying on an extensive trade. It is important for its manufactures of foundry products, leather, and malt liquors.

Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn., called the "Twin Cities," at the head of navigation of the Mississippi, because of their position near the wheat fields and the lumber forests have grown and developed rapidly. Minneapolis (see Fig. 281) is the largest flour-milling center in the world.

Detroit, Mich., from its position on the river connecting Lake Huron and Lake Erie, is an enterprising railroad center and lake port. It is important for its manufacturing of cars and for its shipping of grain, pork, and ores.

Cleveland, Ohio, on Lake Erie, is the leading shipping point in the state. It is busily engaged in iron and steel manufacturing, oil refining, and shipbuilding. Cincinnati, Ohio, the largest city in the Ohio Valley, and Wheeling and Huntington, W. Va., farther up the same river, are manufacturing centers.

Indianapolis, Ind., is a thriving manufacturing place and an active railway center.

The western group of these states, owing



FIG. 278. Docks and elevators at Duluth.



FIG. 279. Along the Lake Front, Chicago.

to the prevailing occupations, agriculture and grazing, has a scattered population and few large cities except along the Missouri River. The principal ones are those that have developed as railroad centers for the region round about. The larger are *Kansas City, Mo.*; *Omaha, Nebr.*, and *St. Joseph, Mo.*, all important markets for cattle, sheep, and horses. Many portions of these states, however, are far removed from railroads, which do not form a network over the country as they do in the eastern section. The principal roads are the great transcontinental lines running east and west between the eastern cities and the cities of the Plateau States. (See Fig. 285.)



FIG. 280. Looking down into the midst of Chicago.

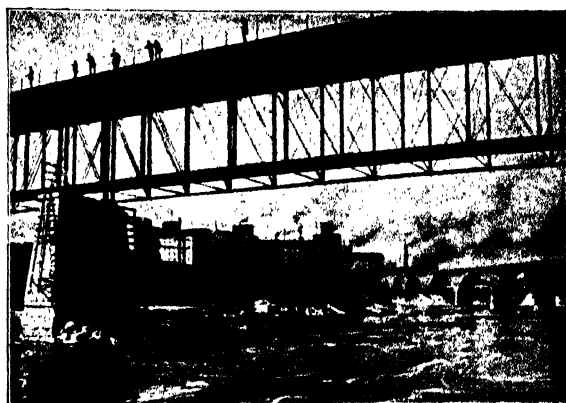


FIG. 281. Looking toward the flour-milling district in Minneapolis.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Name the great cattle-raising states.
- (2) Trace the route by which the wool from Wisconsin gets to Massachusetts.
- (3) Locate the large meat-packing cities, and trace the route by which Kansas City beef gets to Philadelphia.
- (4) Give one reason why Grand Rapids should manufacture furniture; Wisconsin, wood pulp.
- (5) What are the great iron-shipping cities?
- (6) Trace the route by which iron from Duluth reaches Pittsburgh.
- (7) Draw a map of the Great Lakes, and locate on it the chief commercial cities.
- (8) State the importance of the rapids at the "Soo."
- (9) Compare the importance of the "Soo" and the Suez canals.
- (10) Draw a diagram showing the chief advantages of the location of Chicago.
- (11) Draw the chief lines of railroad which center in this city.
- (12) Tell about its growth.

XXXV. THE PLATEAU STATES

STATE	Abbreviation	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
Montana.....	Mont...	146,572	376,053	Butte.....	39,165	Helena
Wyoming.....	Wyo...	97,914	145,965	Cheyenne.....	11,320	Cheyenne
Colorado.....	Colo...	103,948	799,024	Denver.....	213,381	Denver
New Mexico.....	N. Mex.	122,634	327,301	Albuquerque..	11,020	Santa Fe
Arizona.....	Ariz...	113,956	204,354	Tucson.....	13,193	Phoenix
Nevada.....	Nev...	110,690	81,875	Reno.....	10,867	Carson City
Utah.....	Utah...	84,990	373,351	Salt Lake City.	92,777	Salt Lake City
Idaho.....	Idaho..	84,313	325,594	Boise.....	17,358	Boise

Surface and Climate. The surface of the Plateau States is extremely rugged, except to the east of the Rocky Mountains and in

parts of the Great Basin, where the slopes are, in places, gentle, though the elevation is high. The climate is dry, except in the higher

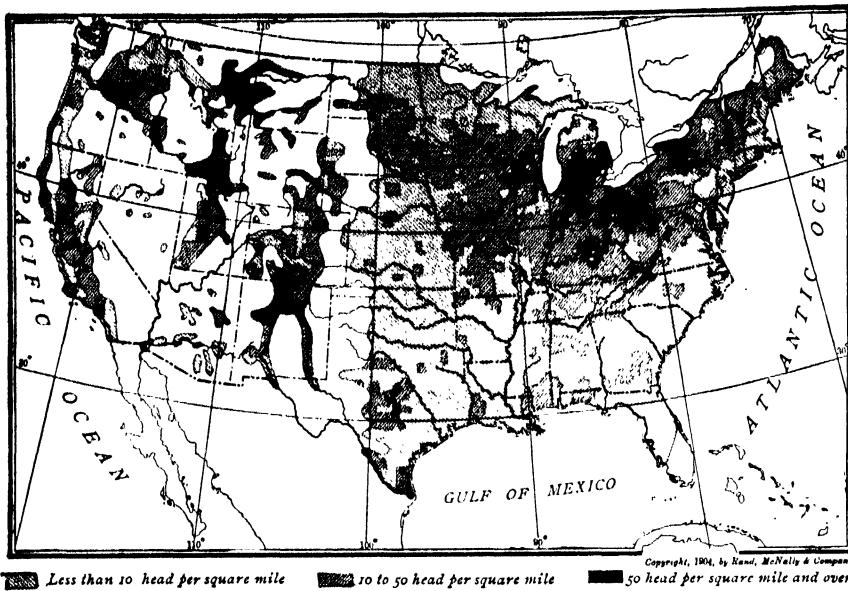


FIG. 282. The number of sheep per square mile in the United States.

mountains, where there is enough moisture for the growth of trees. As a result, the occupations in the Plateau States are largely grazing and mining. The population is consequently scattered, being mostly centered about the mining towns and in a few large cities in the lower regions, which have developed because they are favorably situated for trade. The population of this whole group of states is only a little more than that of the city of Chicago.

The scenery is everywhere grand and impressive (see Fig. 175), but there are enormous areas in the highlands that are little known, and undeveloped because they contain no valuable products except lumber. Owing to the distance from the markets and the consequent cost of transportation, the forests have been of little value thus far. Many of the mountain regions and the hills at the foot of the mountains have become famous as health and pleasure resorts, owing to

the value of its agricultural products with the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin.

Grazing. The principal form of grazing is the raising of sheep, though cattle are raised in

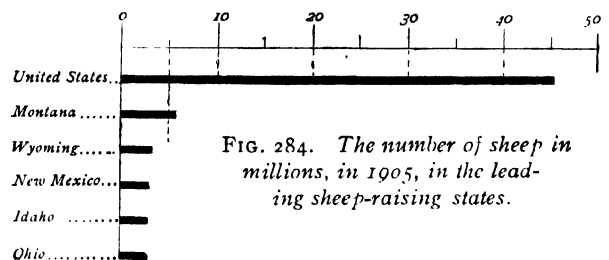


FIG. 284. The number of sheep in millions, in 1905, in the leading sheep-raising states.

large numbers in certain parts of some of the states. Montana, Wyoming, New Mexico, and Idaho lead all the states in the Union in the number of sheep raised, and Montana and Wyoming are also the leading states in the pro-

duction of wool. (See Figs. 282, 283, and 284.) As sheep eat clean wherever they go, they have done great damage to the young and tender trees in the forests. As a result, grazing in the forests is now being restricted.

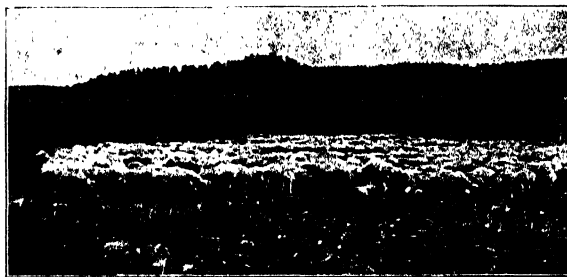


FIG. 283. A scene on a sheep ranch in the grazing region of Montana.



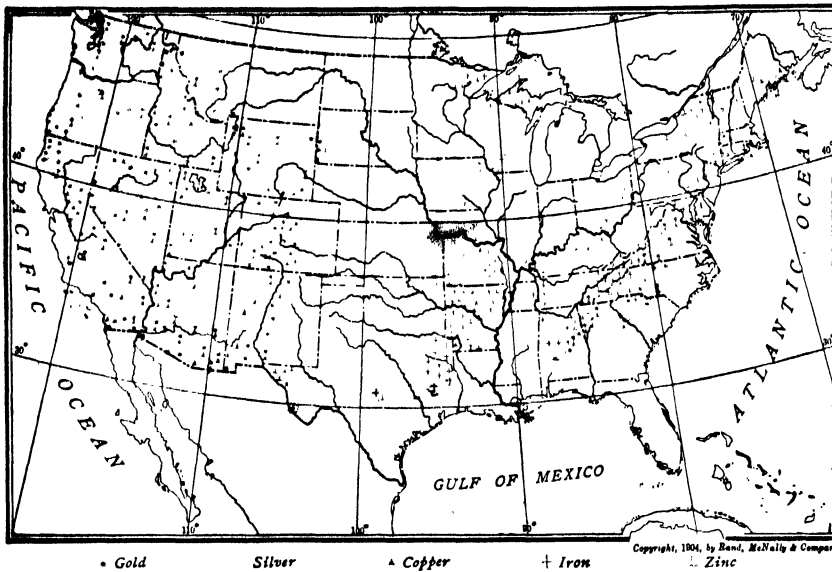


FIG. 286. The leading centers of production of gold, silver, copper, iron, and zinc.

Mining. The strong rocks that make up the mountain masses contain abundant supplies of valuable minerals, of which the most important are gold, silver, and copper. Colorado is first and Nevada fifth in the production of gold, and Colorado, Montana, Utah, and Idaho, in the order named, are the leading silver-producing states. Thus practically all the silver of the country is from the Plateau States. Montana is first in the production of copper; the mines at *Butte* (see Fig. 288) are the richest and the best developed in the world. Arizona is the third copper-producing state.

Lead, which is usually found in association with the silver, is also an important mineral. Idaho, Utah, and Colorado lead in its production. Coal is found in nearly all the states, but is little mined except in Colorado, where it is largely used in making coke.

The great value of the ores has made the smelting of gold and silver of great importance at many places. *Denver* and *Pueblo*,

Colo., are the leading smelting cities, though *Leadville*, *Colo.*, at an altitude of over ten thousand feet, is important in this industry. *Cripple Creek* (see Fig. 289) and *Leadville* are the best known of the large mining towns, yet many smaller ones are found throughout the mountains. The towns are usually located on the lower slopes of the valleys, the openings to the mines dotting the hillsides. (See Fig. 286.)

Trade Routes and Cities. The principal railroads that cross the Plateau States are por-

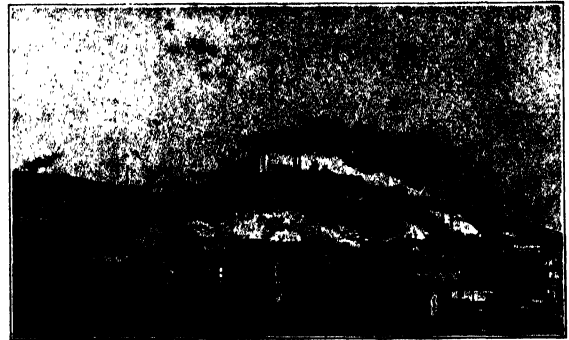


FIG. 288. The copper mines near Butte, Montana.

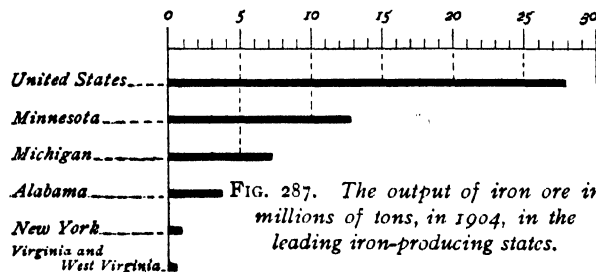


FIG. 287. The output of iron ore in millions of tons, in 1904, in the leading iron-producing states.

tions of the great transcontinental lines. Many of the mountain passes are occupied by railroads, some of which cross the mountains at an altitude of over ten thousand feet. A great circle of railroads starting from *Denver* connects the mining towns of southern Colorado.

Branch roads connect the main lines with the mining towns in the smaller valleys, so

that the railroads are of importance not only as routes for through freight, but also for their supplies of ore which they bring to the larger cities for smelting.

Owing to the fact that the commerce between the different states of this region is small, there is but one railroad running north and south. This route extends from *Butte*, Mont., southward to Utah, but it is not so important as the lines connecting the East with the Pacific Coast. A new road has been completed across the desert from *Salt Lake City*, Utah, to *Los Angeles* and *San Pedro Bay*, Cal., giving another outlet to the East for the products of southern California.

The larger cities of this group of states are distributing centers for the mining towns, receiving the ores and sending in return necessities in the way of mining supplies and food. The chief city of this group of states is *Denver*, Colo., situated at the eastern foot of the Rocky Mountains and having excellent railroad connections with the East. It is an important railway center. Within a few miles are *Pueblo*, Colo., a smelting city, and *Colorado Springs*, Colo., a noted health and scenic resort. Arizona and New Mexico contain no large cities. *Santa Fe*, in New Mexico, an interesting old Spanish town, is the oldest city in the United States, though it has not been occupied by white people so long as *St. Augustine*, Fla. *Phoenix* and *Tucson*, Ariz.,

towns of some size, are largely dependent upon their mining.

East of Great Salt Lake, in a fine climate and within rich irrigated districts, are *Salt Lake City*, *Ogden*, and *Provo*, Utah. These cities, favored by their position upon trans-continental railroad lines, are growing rapidly. *Salt Lake City* is the home of the Mormon church and contains its Temple and its Tabernacle. Both buildings are impressive and of much interest to travelers.

Nevada is thinly populated and has no large towns. *Virginia City* and *Carson City* once were important places, owing to the wealth of the neighboring silver mines. These mines have yielded less in recent years, and the cities have lost much of their population. To the southeast is *Goldfield*, a new and important mining town near rich gold mines.

Indians. The Plateau States contain a large number of Indians, the last of the powerful tribes who possessed the country before the coming of the white men. They

are unlike the Indians of former years, however, as they are no longer chiefly dependent upon the chase for their living. Some of them practice agriculture, and many have large flocks of sheep and small donkeys called burros. Many Indians secure a good living from the region

where they dwell, living in respectable homes. Certain tribes are noted for the weaving of baskets (see Fig. 291), rugs, and blankets.



FIG. 289. *Cripple Creek, Colorado.*



FIG. 290. *An irrigated orchard in Utah.*

In New Mexico there are many tribes of Indians who live in large towns composed of flat-roofed houses, built of sun-dried bricks made from the clay of the region. (See Fig. 88.) These villages, situated upon the hilltops, are extremely interesting and picturesque objects. Centuries ago great numbers of primitive people lived here in similar villages or *pueblos*, or in houses built in the recesses under cliffs. They have all disappeared, however, and to-day the only knowledge that we have of them and their manner of living is what we learn from the ruins of their houses and the implements and tools they have left behind them in their homes:



FIG. 291. An Indian woman weaving a basket in Arizona.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Which state in this section is the largest? The smallest? (2) Which state is most densely populated? (3) Where is the population in this state chiefly centered? Why? (4) What is the rainfall of these states? (5) How do you account for the large rivers that cross this region and the Great Plains? (6) Name the rivers that rise in the Plateau section and flow to the east. (7) What rivers do not flow out of this section? Give the reason. (8) Why are the grazing areas so thinly peopled? (9) To what cities are the sheep and cattle of this section sent to be slaughtered? (10) Study the product maps and be able to locate on a blank map the chief products of this section. (11) State the importance of the location of Pueblo and tell why the town is a growing one. (12) What railroad facilities has it? (13) Why is Denver a railroad center?

XXXVI. THE STATES OF THE PACIFIC COAST

STATE	Abbreviation	Area in sq. miles	Population 1910	Chief City	Population 1910	Capital
Washington.....	Wash..	69,127	1,141,990	Seattle.....	237,194	Olympia
Oregon.....	Ore....	96,699	672,765	Portland.....	207,214	Salem
California.....	Cal....	158,297	2,377,549	San Francisco.	416,912	Sacramento

The States of the Pacific Coast are everywhere mountainous, except in the large river valleys and on the small lowlands that border the Pacific in the southern part of California. The mountains are building so rapidly that in portions of this region earthquakes are frequent. In



FIG. 292. Hydraulic mining in California.

1906 a severe earthquake caused a great destruction of property and lives in San Francisco and the immediate vicinity. Mining, lumbering, and agriculture are the leading occupations of the people.

Mining. Mining is at present practically confined to California, next to

Colorado, the leading gold-producing state. In 1849 gold was found in the gravels of the valleys on the western side of the Sierra Nevada. (See Fig. 292.) People flocked to the diggings from all parts of the Union. As the returns from gold mining decreased the people turned their attention to other things, and began to develop lumbering and agriculture. In the production of quicksilver California leads the world, and in petroleum is the first state in the Union.

Lumbering. Except for the cutting of the Big Trees (see Fig. 293) and the redwoods in California, lumbering is largely confined to the two northern states. It is most important in Washington, fifth in the Union in the value of its forest products. The great fir trees, many over two hundred feet high, furnish much valuable timber which is sent to the larger towns, to be prepared for market. Tacoma and Seattle, Wash., are the great lumber towns of the West.

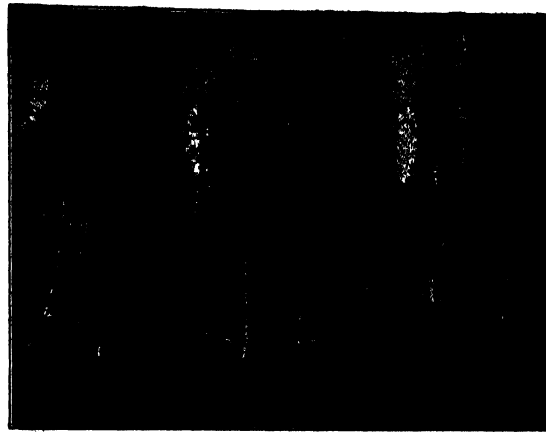


FIG. 293. *Big Trees of California.*

The Big Trees, the largest in the world, are found only in a few scattered groves in the Sierra Nevada. Some are nearly one hundred feet in circumference and over three hundred feet high. In some places they are being preserved, but in others ruthlessly destroyed for their lumber. The redwoods furnish a beautiful wood for interior decoration.

Agriculture. Certain forms of agriculture

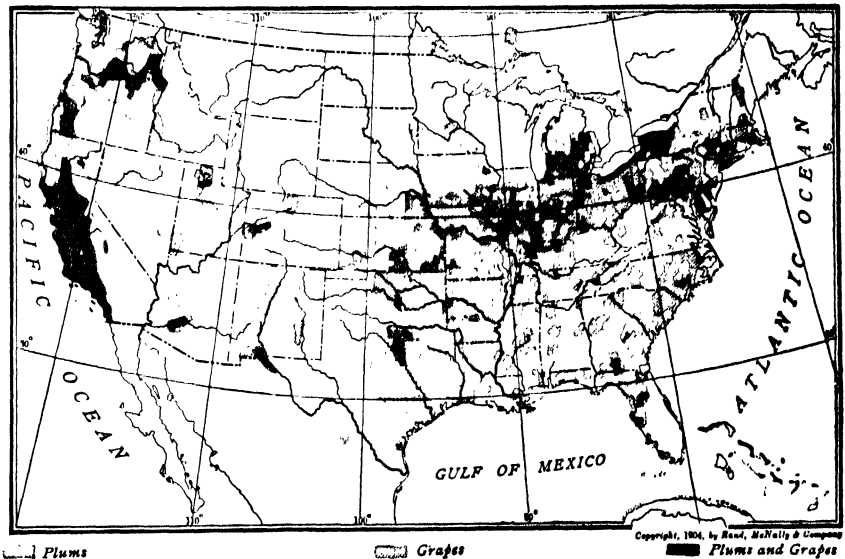


FIG. 294. *The areas of production of grapes and plums in the United States.*

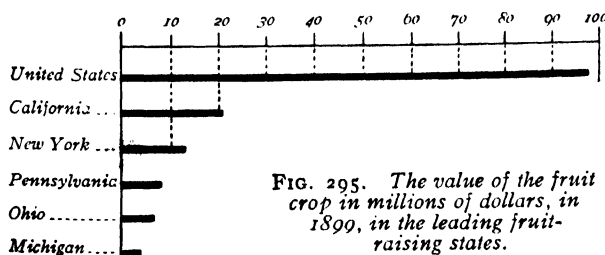


FIG. 295. *The value of the fruit crop in millions of dollars, in 1890, in the leading fruit-raising states.*

are important in Washington, Oregon, and California. The dry valleys of these states and the eastern plateaus of Washington favor the growing of wheat, barley, and sugar beets. California is the second state in the production of barley and of sugar beets. Four-fifths of the hops grown in the country are raised in these states. Oregon is the first state in production.

The most important crop of the States



FIG. 296.

of the Pacific Coast group, however, is fruit. Owing to the subtropical climate of southern California and to the abundant sunshine and even temperature, all varieties of temperate and subtropical fruits are raised in large quantities. The success of the fruits depends largely upon the employment of irrigation, for which the near-by mountain streams furnish an abundance of water. The water is taken from the streams as they emerge from the mountains and is distributed over the lands in a series of branching channels, very much like those of a delta, though of course much smaller. (See Fig. 300.)

California is the first state in the Union in the production of temperate-climate fruits like peaches, plums, prunes, pears, apricots, and grapes. A large part of the grapes is made into wine and raisins. California leads the Union in these industries. It is also first in the raising of all kinds of subtropical fruits, except bananas and pine-apples, which are not found here. It produces nearly twenty times as many oranges as Florida, practically all the lemons and olives, and a large share of the figs as well as nearly all the almonds and Eng-

lish walnuts grown in the United States. (See Figs. 294, 295, and 299.)

Some of the temperate fruits and a large part of the oranges are shipped to eastern markets fresh. A great quantity, especially of peaches, pears, and prunes, however, is canned or preserved. California is the leading fruit-preserving state in the Union.

Fishing. The rivers of the northwestern coast provide favorite spawning grounds for salmon, and therefore the catching and the curing of this fish are important industries in Washington and Oregon. (See Fig. 297.) Washington is the first state in the country in fish canning, and Oregon fifth. The canning industry is not so important, however, in either state as it is farther north in Alaska.

Manufacturing. Except for the canning and preserving of fruits, vegetables, and fish, the preparation of lumber, and the making of wine, there is little manufacturing of importance in any of the States of the Pacific Coast. A large amount of sugar is refined at San Francisco and other near by



FIG. 299. An orange grove in southern California. cities as at Stockton, Cal. The raw sugar is imported mostly from Hawaii.



FIG. 297. Unloading salmon on the banks of the Columbia River.



FIG. 298. A view of the harbor at San Francisco.

Cities and Trade.

Owing to the regular form of the coast, the harbors are few and far apart along the whole length of these three states. The principal harbors are those of the two great inlets, San Francisco Bay and Puget Sound, and the harbor of San Pedro, which has been improved by the

Government at large expense. Each of the cities which have developed on these inlets has transcontinental connection with the producing and consuming areas of the East, and through them pass the exports to the far East.

San Francisco, Cal., which is connected with the eastern cities by several routes and which has the best harbor (see Fig. 298), has one of the most favorable situations on the Pacific coast. Its commerce with the Old World has grown rapidly since the United States came into possession of Hawaii and the Philippines. The business portion of the city is situated on a low plain bordering the

bay, while the residence portion is located on the hills between the bay and the ocean. The city has a large Chinese population. In 1906 the business area and part of the residence section were almost destroyed by a great earthquake and fire. The city is being rebuilt and no doubt will soon again be one of the great business centers of the country.

Across the Bay of San Francisco, where the climate is a little less damp than it is in the city itself, have grown up several residence suburbs. The most important of these are *Oakland* and *Berkeley*, the seat of the University of California, one of the leading universities of the country. The growth of cities on the eastern side of the bay will probably continue, as the railroads from the east all terminate on that side of the bay, with the exception of one road, which enters San Francisco from the south.

Sacramento, the capital of the state, and *Stockton*, both connected with San Francisco by navigable rivers, are active and growing towns. *Los Angeles*, in the southern part of the state and at the center of the subtropical fruit-growing area, has developed with great rapidity in the last few years, owing in part to the increase in the fruit industry and in part to the fact that the climate of this region is warm and dry, and therefore much liked by many people.

Portland, the port of Oregon, is the chief city of that state. It has a growing commerce and is important locally for its manufactures. The leading cities of Washington are *Tacoma* and *Seattle*, both ports of increasing importance, and *Spokane*, a manufacturing center in the eastern part of the

state, situated near waterfalls which furnish excellent power. *Seattle* is the principal port for the Alaskan trade, and *Portland* has an important coastwise commerce.

Questions and Exercises

(1) On which side of the mountains are the forests heavier? Why? (2) Why are the two northern states more densely wooded than California? (3) Why is not the southern part of California so heavily forested as the northern part of the state? (4) Where is the great wheat-producing area of this section? (5) Why is *Spokane* called the "Minneapolis of the West"? (6) What conditions of climate make fruit growing profitable? (7) What climatic conditions are unfavorable to such growth?

(9) Why are San Francisco Bay and Puget Sound so important to the Pacific Coast? (10) Draw a large map showing the location of San Francisco and surrounding towns. (11) Of what valley is it the outlet? (12) What features of location similar to New York has San Francisco? (13) What interesting sights does the city afford? (14) How is a California farm irrigated?



FIG. 300. An irrigated fruit farm in southern California.

XXXVII. THE DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES

The United States possesses several dependencies in different parts of the world, and a few small islands in the Pacific. The territories of *Alaska*, *Hawaii*, and *Porto Rico* are of great value to the home country because of their products, but the small islands are of little value except as cable and coaling stations in the Pacific Ocean. (Sec Fig. 303.)

ALASKA

Alaska was bought from Russia in 1867. It extends from the Queen Charlotte Islands to the end of the Aleutian chain, and has an area more than twice as great as the

state of Texas. The population, which is made up largely of Indians, is over sixty thousand.

Surface. The surface of Alaska is mostly mountainous. The Cordilleran Highland

grows narrower here than it is to the south, but contains many high peaks, of which *Mount McKinley* (see Fig. 301) is the highest and *Mount St. Elias* the best known. Many of the peaks of the Aleutian Islands are volcanic, but are practically inactive. The northern coast of Alaska is lower than the southern, but owing

to its Arctic location large areas are almost unknown. The coast is very irregular and in the south is indented by a magnificent series of fiords, in which salmon abound.

Drainage. Alaska contains several large rivers, of which the greatest, the *Yukon*, extends across the whole area. The *Yukon* is one of the large rivers of the continent and is an important highway for summer trade. The lands of the lower valley have so favorable a climate that they can be devoted to the raising of the more hardy cereals and vegetables. Agriculture is developing here. The principal towns of the valley are found along the eastern boundary of the territory near the cities of northwestern Canada, all of which are due to the discovery of gold in the Klondike region a few years ago. (See Fig. 304.)

Climate and Vegetation. Alaska lies in the path of the westerly winds. It therefore has a moist and somewhat equable climate along its coast, with a rainfall greater than that in any other part of North America. Hence forests grow on the slopes of the mountains up to a height of 2,500 or 3,000 feet. In the higher altitudes glaciers are found, of which the largest is the *Malaspina* glacier. The best known is the *Muir* glacier, which reaches the sea and therefore can be readily visited.

The climate of the interior is marked by strong contrasts between the summer and the winter. In winter the temperatures are low, the rainfall slight, and the ground may be frozen to a depth of over one hundred feet. In summer the tempera-

ture is relatively high, the surface soil melts, and the ground is covered with vegetation which reaches up the mountains to a height of several thousand feet. The northern portion lies in the tundra region, and is therefore devoid of the larger forms of vegetation found farther to the south. (See Fig. 119.)

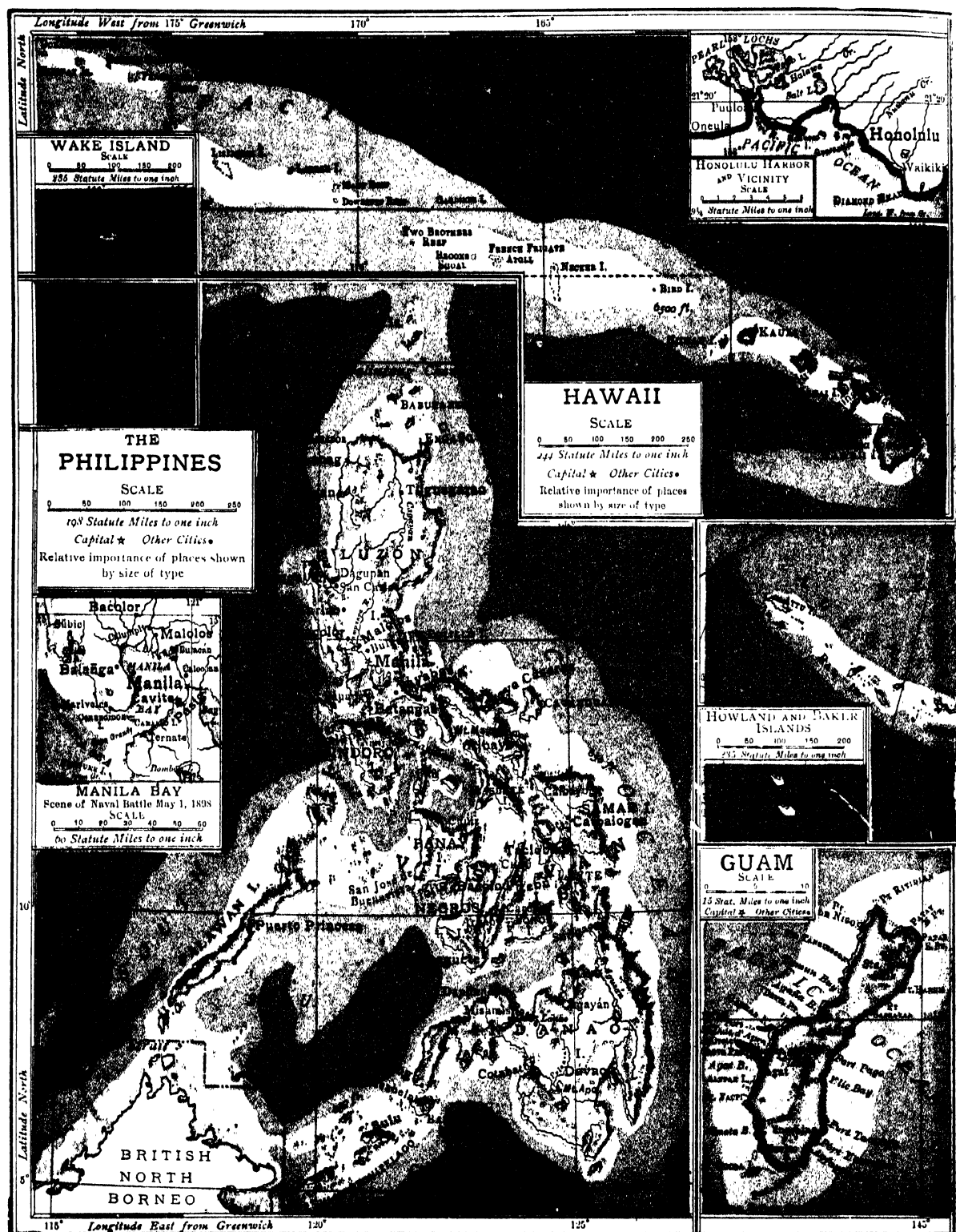
Products. The rocks of the mountains of Alaska abound in minerals, and gold has been found in great quantities in the beach and river gravels. Hence mineral wealth is the greatest natural resource of the country. Coal is also widely distributed, but it



FIG. 301. *Mount McKinley, the highest mountain in North America.*

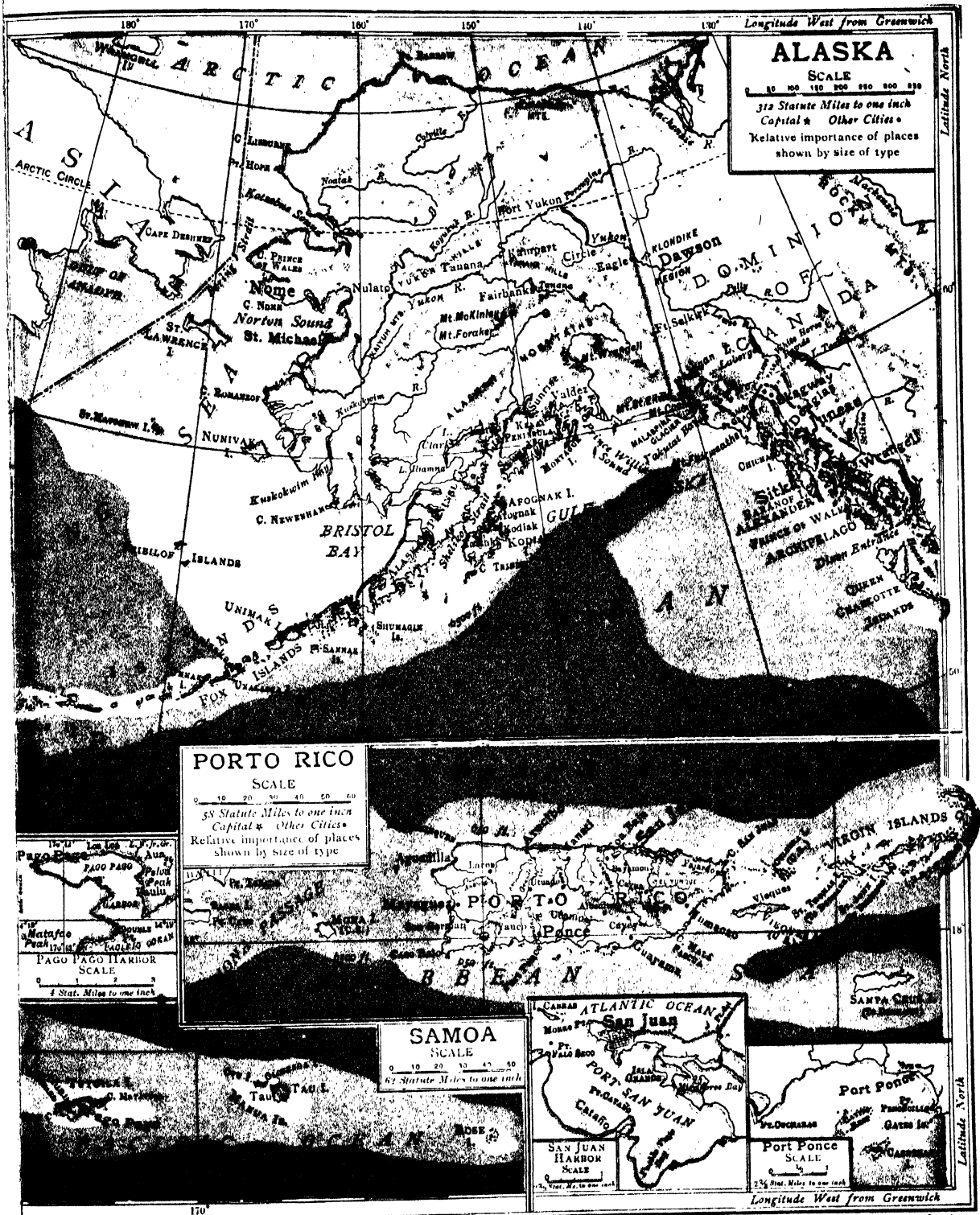


FIG. 302. *The famous Treadwell gold mine as seen from the water.*



Revised, 1920

FIG. 30



is generally almost inaccessible, but because the cost is reasonable it is mined only along the coast. Gold and silver ore form the most valuable export. For many years it has been



FIG. 304. *An Alaskan village.*

secured from the rocks about *Juneau*, so that a large town, dependent upon this industry, has grown up there. The discovery of gold on the Yukon and at Nome has added much to the wealth and population of Alaska. The gold-bearing gravels of the Yukon are richer in Canada, however, than they are in Alaska. (See Fig. 302.)

The second industry in rank in Alaska is fishing. Salmon are caught in great numbers in the estuaries of the western coast, as they are farther south in the United States. Most of the salmon are canned, and Alaska produces annually more than ten million dollars worth of canned salmon, an amount far greater than is produced in Washington, the leading state of the Union in this industry.

The third product of Alaska is furs. When Alaska belonged to Russia its chief product was furs, secured largely from seals found on the Pribilof Islands. Since 1890 the supply of skins has rapidly decreased, owing to the practical destruction of the seal herds and the present annual output of furs has only about one-tenth the value of the salmon.

Cities. The largest permanent settlements are at *Sitka* and *Juneau*, the seat of the territorial government. *Sitka*, built on Baranof

Island, is an interesting village, and is the oldest town in the territory. It contains an interesting Greek church, built during the Russian possession of the region, and is much visited by tourists annually.

Trade. The trade of Alaska is principally with the United States. The exports are chiefly gold, dried and cured fish, fish oil, and whalebone. In return Alaska receives from our country iron and steel goods, tinware, meat and dairy products, breadstuffs, wearing apparel, and explosives; that is, the larger part of the necessities of life have to be imported. It is not at all probable that the resources of Alaska can be developed so that the food and provisions necessary to supply the needs of the population, which is engaged in fishing and mining, can be grown within the borders of the country.

HAWAII

About one-third of the way across the Pacific Ocean, and lying within the Hot Belt, is a group of eight inhabited islands and several rocky islets, known as the *Hawaiian Islands*, or *Hawaii*. (See Fig. 303.) These islands have belonged to the United States since 1898. They have a combined area about as large as that of the state of Connecticut, and

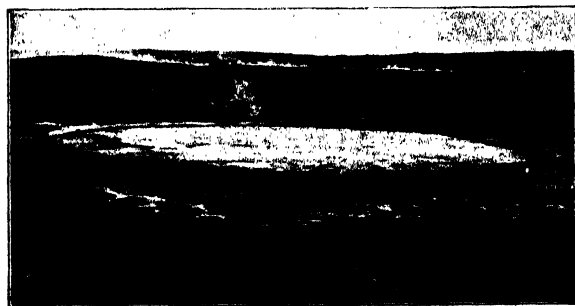


FIG. 305. *The crater of Mauna Loa, showing the steam and vapors rising from it.*

a population of over 190,000. The largest island is Hawaii. The most populous is Oahu, which contains *Honolulu*, the largest city. More than half the population is Japanese and Chinese, though the white

people are rapidly increasing; the native Hawaiians are decreasing.

Surface. The Hawaiian Islands are mountainous and extremely volcanic. The chief

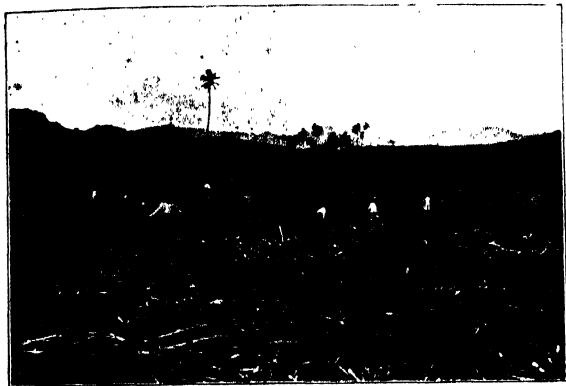


FIG. 306. Loading sugar cane in one of the large Hawaiian sugar cane plantations.

volcanoes are *Mauna Kea* and *Mauna Loa* (see Fig. 305), each with an altitude of over 13,500 feet. On the slopes of *Mauna Loa* is the volcano of *Kilauea*, a great seething lake of lava which once in about every twelve years overflows. The eruption of this volcano has none of the violent features which are usually associated with volcanic eruptions. The lava simply wells up and flows down across the country, burning and destroying everything in its path. The volcanic rock weathers rapidly in the moist, tropical climate, and makes an extremely fertile and productive soil.

Climate. Owing to the influence of the ocean the range of temperature in the Hawaiian Islands is only about ten degrees, which is lower than in any other region in a similar latitude. There are only two seasons, winter and summer, with the greatest rainfall in the winter.

Products; Trade; Cities. Hawaii is the fourth largest producer of cane sugar in the world. Sugar is the leading crop. (See Fig. 306.) Its output is now greater than that of Louisiana. Rice and bananas are raised in large quantities. Hawaii raises bananas for commerce and produces more

rice than Texas, the leading rice-producing state of the Union. Stock raising is an important occupation on the higher slopes, where crops cannot be so readily grown.

More than nine-tenths of the exports of the Hawaiian Islands goes to the United States. Sugar, sent to California for refining, has the leading place. The imports are also received chiefly from the United States, and include breadstuffs, machinery, cotton manufactures, lumber, and provisions.

Owing to their position the islands form an important calling place for Pacific steamers. They are connected with one another by a well-developed system of wireless telegraphy, and are connected with America and the continent of Asia by a cable finished in 1903.

Honolulu, the capital and largest city, is a modern town, with electric cars and electric lights. It is well provided with wharves for the accommodation of the large and increasing trade.

THE PHILIPPINES

The Philippines, which have been possessions of the United States since 1898, are the most numerous group of islands southeast of Asia. (See Fig. 303.) They include 3,141



FIG. 307 Rice field in the Philippines.

islands and islets, with an area about equal to that of Arizona. Two-thirds of this area is in the larger islands, *Luzon* and *Mindanao*. The population is now more than seven millions, of which the larger part belongs

to the brown race. Europeans are found in all the leading cities, and are rapidly increasing in numbers.

Surface. The surface of the Philippines is generally mountainous and volcanic, with some peaks rising over 10,000 feet. Extensive lowlands exist in the two larger islands, and it is in these districts that agriculture is best developed.

Climate and Vegetation. The climate is everywhere tropical on account of the location of the islands. In *Manila*, the chief city, the temperature never goes below 59° or above 90°. The nights are generally cool, so that the warmth of the days is not so oppressive as in those regions where there is but little difference between the temperatures of day and night. The islands are swept by both monsoons, and the rainfall is therefore abundant during each season. The rainfall in the northern islands occurs mostly

during the prevalence of the northeast trade wind, and in the southern islands at the opposite season. Therefore the period of planting and harvest, which depends upon the rainfall, differs in the two sections.

Owing to the warmth and the moisture of the climate, the vegetation is very dense, and in many places tropical jungles abound. Because of the density of the vegetation, traveling in the country is carried on with difficulty.

Products. The chief products of the Philippines are tropical in their nature; they include hemp, sugar, coffee, cocoanuts, tobacco, and indigo. Rice is raised extensively in the more favorable regions, but is all used at home as food for the people. (See Fig. 307.)

The forests abound in cabinet and dye woods, but they have been little developed as yet, owing to the difficulties and the cost of getting the products to market.

The islands are rich in minerals, including gold, coal, copper, silver, and lead, but mining, like agriculture, has not as yet been developed as it can be.

Trade; Cities; Development. The principal part of the trade of the Philippines is with the United Kingdom, Hong-kong, Japan, France, and Spain. The United States receives nearly one-half of the exports, of which manila hemp is the chief. (See Fig. 308.) The principal imports are cotton goods, hard-

ware, and machinery from the United Kingdom. At present the imports from the United States are increasing, but our country furnishes only about one-sixth of all the goods received in trade.

The chief ports are at *Manila* and *Iloilo*. Manila has the best

harbor and it can be made the equal of any of the harbors of the Pacific. (See Fig. 309.) The islands are now connected with Asia and with the United States by cables.

OTHER ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC

The United States possesses a number of small islands in the Pacific, which are or may be important as cable and coaling stations. Chief of these are *Guam*, the largest of the Marianne (Ladrone) Islands, and *Tutuila*, in the Samoa group. The others are *Howland*, *Baker*, *Wake*, *Midway*, and *Marcus* islands.

Guam, with an area of about two hundred square miles, is occupied mostly by descendants of immigrants from the Philippines. It raises some cocoanuts for commerce.



FIG. 308. Loading manila hemp rope to carry to the ships for transportation.

Tutuila is the only possession of the United States in the Southern Hemisphere. It contains the port of *Pago-Pago*, one of the best harbors of the Pacific Ocean, and is therefore an exceedingly valuable coaling station.



FIG. 309. A general view along the Pasig River, Manila, showing the shipping of this port.

PORTO RICO

Porto Rico, one of the larger islands of the West Indies, is about three and a half times as large as Rhode Island, and contains a population of more than a million. It has a density of population surpassing all the states of the Union except Rhode Island and Massachusetts. The people are mostly of Spanish descent or are negroes.

Surface and Climate. The surface of Porto Rico is rolling and diversified with mountains rising along the axis of the island to a height of over 3,000 feet. There are extensive plains near the coast which are devoted to agriculture.

Porto Rico lies in the northerly trade-wind belt, and therefore has an abundant rainfall, especially in the north. The heavy rainfall provides an ample supply of water to the rivers, so that the region is well watered. The lower portions of the rivers are navigable for small vessels.

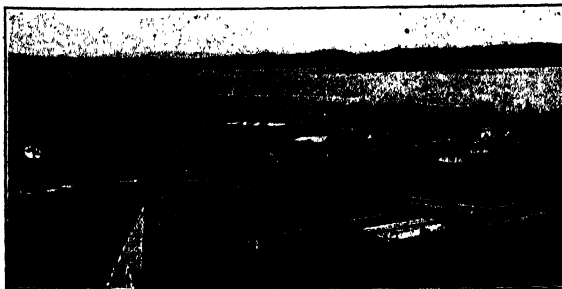


FIG. 310. The harbor of San Juan, the capital and chief city of Porto Rico.

Products. Owing to the warmth and the moisture, the slopes of the island are covered with forests, which contain valuable supplies of cabinet woods, as do the forests of the other Caribbean regions.

Sugar, tobacco, coffee, and tropical fruits are the leading agricultural products. Two-thirds of the trade is with the United States. It includes sugar and cigars. France ranks next in the amount of commerce. The imports are almost entirely from the United States, and include cotton goods, machinery, hog products, and flour.

The chief towns are the ports of *San Juan* (see Fig. 310) and *Ponce*.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Find out what you can about one of the three great industries of Alaska. (2) Locate the places where these industries are centered. (3) Describe the route by which the products of Alaska reach Chicago or Washington. (4) Find out when Sitka ceased to be a Russian town.

(5) What tempers the climate of the Hawaiian Islands? (6) What objects of interest does a stranger find in these islands? (7) What steamer lines stop at Honolulu? (8) Why is sugar refining a large business at San Francisco? (9) What is the latitude of the Hawaiian Islands? (10) Locate the Philippines. (11) How does their climate differ from that of Hawaii? (12) What islands of North America are visited by tropical cyclones? (13) What can you say of the future prospects of our islands in the Pacific as regards trade and other industries?

(14) On an outline map of the world locate all the dependencies of the United States and draw commercial routes between them and this country. Show the cable lines. (15) When it is noon on Monday at San Francisco tell what day and time it is at Manila. Write this on map.

SUMMARY

With the development of the last few years and the increase in possessions outside of the United States proper, our country has become one of the great world powers, ranking with the leading nations of Europe. The progress of the country has been largely due to the favorable conditions for the development of agriculture, manufacturing, and commerce. The vast areas of fertile soil in the central states, lying in a climate favorable to agriculture, has made it possible for the country to become the home of millions of people from the European nations. The development of the agricultural possibilities has created a great wealth of breadstuffs and provisions available for commerce. The United States has therefore become the principal country furnishing food to Europe.

The almost inexhaustible resources of iron and coal, and the development of cotton raising in the South, have made the United States one of the greatest manufacturing countries of the world.

The location of the United States across the smaller ocean from the leading nations of Europe, and the fact that it is well supplied with large and commodious harbors, accessible throughout the year, have favored the development of Atlantic commerce. The numerous water gaps through the Appalachian Highland, and the natural highways of commerce to the South and Southwest, have made it possible to transport the products of the interior to the eastern ports cheaply and rapidly. The development of the water commerce along the Great Lakes has also been of great importance commercially.

The commercial cities along the Pacific Coast are now developing rapidly, owing to the increase in commerce with our possessions in the Pacific and the greater ease in getting to the ports of the Far East.

Because of these many favoring conditions, the United States is now the third commercial

country in the world, having more than ten per cent of the world's trade. It is exceeded in its exports only by the United Kingdom, though it is closely followed by Germany. In its imports it is exceeded by both the United Kingdom and Germany. Its principal trade is with these two countries, Canada (see Fig. 314) and France.

The chief exports are cotton, provisions, breadstuffs, iron and steel goods, and mineral oil. The principal manufactured products sent in trade are, in the order of their importance, iron and steel goods, refined oils, cotton goods, leather, and agricultural implements.

Manufactured products form about sixty per cent and agricultural products about thirty per cent of the exports of the United States. The principal products of the soil, in the order of their importance in trade, are wheat, flour, corn, cattle and hog products, and cotton. More than one-half the manufactured products are sent to Europe and one-fourth to other countries of North America.

The chief imports are products that cannot be produced at home, either because of the climate or because the country has not developed its possibilities in certain lines because of the far greater opportunities in the lines generally followed. The principal imports are from the warmer countries and include sugar from the West Indies and Cuba, coffee from Brazil and Central America; vegetable fibers from Mexico, the Philippines, and India; chemicals, drugs, and dyes; hides and skins from Europe and South America; silk from Japan, Italy, and China; rubber from Brazil and Europe; tea from China and Japan.

Among the other imports are laces from the United Kingdom, Germany, and Switzerland; wool and woollen goods from the United Kingdom; diamonds; silk goods from France; and tin from the United Kingdom and the East Indies.

XXXVIII COUNTRIES OF NORTHERN NORTH AMERICA

Ownership and Area. Northern North America comprises the *Dominion of Canada*, *Newfoundland*, *Greenland*, and *Alaska*. (See Fig. 312.) Alaska belongs to the United States; Greenland is owned by Denmark; Newfoundland, which includes the island of that name and a narrow strip of land along the eastern coast of Labrador, belongs to the United Kingdom. All the rest of northern North America is included in the Dominion of Canada, a colony of the United Kingdom.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA

Area and Population. The Dominion of Canada constitutes by far the largest and most important dependency of the British Empire in the Western Hemisphere. The area of Canada is a little larger than that of the United States, but the population is only a little over 7,200,000, or a little less than four-fifths of the population of New York state.

Coast Line. The coast line of Canada is irregular on both oceans (see Fig. 312), but the valuable harbors are few, owing to the fact that during the winter months most of the Atlantic harbors are closed by ice. (See Fig. 82.) The harbors of the Pacific Coast are never icebound, but they do not as yet rank with the Atlantic ports for the reason that they are not so favorably situated for receiving agricultural products and for sending them to countries which are deficient in food supplies.

Surface. The northern extremity of the Appalachian Highland includes New Brun-

wick and Nova Scotia. Rugged ranges of hills run nearly northeast and southwest and occupy a large part of the area of these two provinces, being most pronounced in New Brunswick. These uplands are largely in a wild state and for much of their extent are little known. Rich lowland valleys lie between the ridges and form the regions of densest population.

North of the St. Lawrence and southeast of Hudson Bay is the Labrador Plateau. It is a low, rocky, thin-soiled plateau, the highest portion forming a divide for streams which flow outward in every direction. The

hilly eastern lowlands of western Quebec and northern Ontario have been heavily glaciated and abound in lakes and waterfalls.

The fertility of the soil and the richness of the lowlands along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, are indicated by the fact that over three-fifths

of the population of Canada is found in Quebec and Ontario, which lie in this region. The richest farming lands, perhaps in the world, are in Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

West of the area drained by the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes, and extending to the foothills of the Cordilleran Highland, is the Great Central Plain, the northern continuation of the Great Central Plain of the United States. (See Fig. 173.)

The Cordilleran Highland occupies the whole region between the Great Central Plain and the Pacific Ocean, and reaches its maximum altitudes near the boundary of Alaska. It consists of many different ranges, contains many great glaciers, and is renowned for its magnificent scenery. (See Fig. 174.)



FIG. 311. A glacier in British Columbia.



Drainage. The principal river of Canada is the *St. Lawrence*, which drains the five *Great Lakes*. (See Fig. 312.) The basin of this river is the great highway for Canadian trade, and is increasing in importance each year, owing to the greater use of the canals which have been built around the rapids in the *St. Marys River* at Sault Ste. Marie.

The *Mackenzie River* is one of the long rivers of America, but it drains a region of little value on account of the climate, and hence is of little importance. The *Yukon River*, the other great river of northwestern America, is navigable to the Klondike gold fields in the northwestern corner of the Dominion, and is an important highway of commerce in the summer time, not only for the Territory of Yukon but for Alaska.

Of the western rivers which break through the ranges of the Cordilleran Highland the *Fraser* and the *Columbia* are the largest.

They are not available for water commerce, but their valleys offer the best routes across the mountain ranges, and are therefore much used in travel and transportation.

Climate. The climate of Canada is continental, and is therefore characterized by wide variations in temperature. The country may be divided according to its climate into three great divisions: the southeastern portion, the interior, and the western coast. The southeastern portion extends west nearly to Winnipeg, and is characterized by a great seasonal range of temperature and by ample rainfall during the summer months. (See Figs. 82 and 84.) The spring is late along the eastern coast because the inblowing winds pass over a cold portion of the ocean, and therefore bring little warmth.

The interior region, extending from near

Winnipeg to the eastern slopes of the Cordilleran Highland, is cold in winter and is fairly warm and dry in summer. It warms up in the spring much more rapidly than the eastern section.

The Pacific slopes of the Cordilleran Highland have a moderate range of temperature and are extremely moist. The rainfall is heavy, as it is both to the south in the western portions of Washington and Oregon and to the north along the Alaskan coast and the Aleutian Islands. (See Fig. 97.)

Plants and Animals. The tundra area of Canada, with its low shrubs and abundant mosses, is commonly known as the "Barren Lands"

and sometimes as "The Land of Little Sticks." It covers all of northern Canada as far south as a line extending from the mouth of the Mackenzie River southeast to Fort Churchill on Hudson Bay and then east through northern Quebec. South of the



FIG. 313. The water front at Montreal, the chief commercial city of Quebec.

tundra area is a great forest region which covers the larger part of the Dominion and extends into the United States. (See Fig. 119.)

In the southeastern provinces the forests in the lower lands have been extensively cleared to furnish land for agriculture. Those along the Ottawa River are an important source of supply of wood pulp for the making of paper, and the forests of New Brunswick yield valuable timber products.

This forest region is the home of many fur-bearing animals which are hunted for the sake of their skins.

The most characteristic animals of Canada are the caribou, which are often seen in great herds, and the musk ox, which is found nowhere else in North America. (See Fig. 140.)

Trade. The Dominion of Canada has about one-eighth of the commerce of North America.

which is carried on chiefly with the United Kingdom and the United States. The larger part of the exports goes to the United Kingdom, but more than one-half of the imports are received from the United States. The chief exports to the United Kingdom are animal products, timber, and wheat. Wood and timber, fish, and copper are shipped to the United States. The imports are chiefly iron and steel, coal, breadstuffs, and cotton. Canada is the largest exporter of cheese in the world, and has some of the largest and most important fisheries.

NOVA SCOTIA, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, AND NEW BRUNSWICK

Surface and Coast Line.

The surface of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick is extremely varied, as might be expected from the fact that the Appalachian Highland occupies a large part of this region. The coast line is irregular (see Fig. 312) and its indentations contain several excellent harbors; commerce is impeded, however, by the great prevalence of fogs, especially in the summer months.

Occupations. The lowlands of the interior of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island are devoted to agriculture; grain, apples, and potatoes are the chief crops. Dairying and the raising of horses for the British market are the other leading occupations of the interior. Nova Scotia is rich in coal, some of which can be readily mined and shipped because of the close proximity of the mines to the sea. Lumbering is the most important industry of New Brunswick.

Owing to the nearness of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick to the great fishing grounds of the continental shelf, fishing, especially for cod, lobsters, and herring, is the leading occupation in the coast towns. (See Fig. 315.)

The fishing privileges over the Grand Banks are shared with the United States and France. Fishing is the most important industry in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, and ranks second in New Brunswick.

Cities. *Halifax*, situated on the finest harbor in Nova Scotia, is

the most important naval and coaling station of the United Kingdom on the continent of North America. *Sydney*, on Cape Breton Island, has the largest iron and steel works in the Dominion.

St. John, the largest city in New Brunswick, is favorably situated on a large harbor which opens into the Bay of Fundy. This harbor is free from ice the year round, and its trade with the United Kingdom is constantly increasing.

QUEBEC

Description. The Province of Quebec includes most of the fertile valley of the St. Lawrence River and the greater part of the barren Labrador Plateau. The wilderness of northern Quebec is a favorite fishing and camping country for sportsmen. The Saguenay River is a magnificent fiord, world-renowned for the splendor of its scenery, and visited annually by large numbers of tourists. The highland area of southern Quebec, like that of northern New Brunswick, is visited by

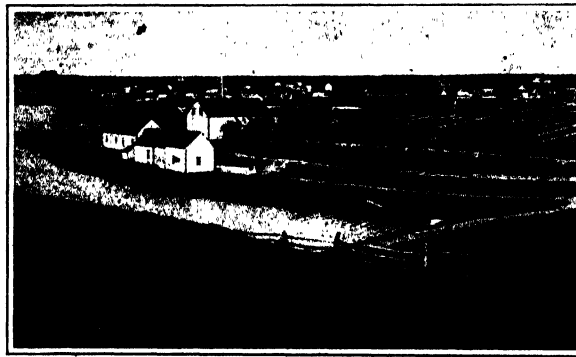
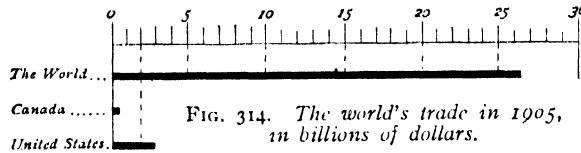


FIG. 315. The fishing village of Cape Breton.

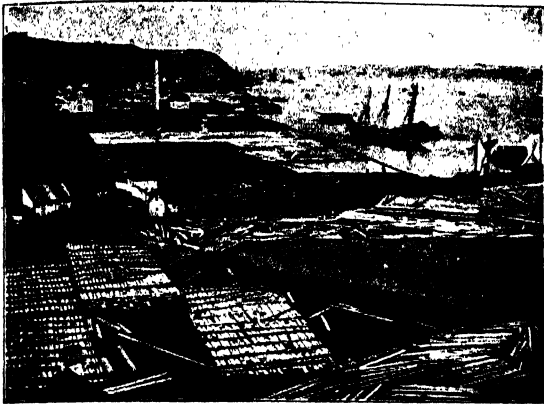


FIG. 316. Rafts of logs on the St. Lawrence River at Quebec.

many sportsmen and fishermen during the summer months.

Industries. The larger portion of the population of the Province of Quebec is in the valley of the St. Lawrence. Central Quebec has only small, scattered settlements, found in the small valleys, where a fair living can be secured by means of agriculture.

Most of the people of the province are engaged in tilling the soil. The chief crops are cereals, hay, tobacco, and fruits, although great quantities of cheese and butter are made, and a large number of horses are raised. Lumbering is the second occupation in importance and is constantly growing because of the prevalence of the valuable soft white pine, the supply of which throughout the northern United States is being rapidly exhausted. (See Fig. 316.)

Cities. *Quebec*, the capital and the oldest city of the province, is beautifully situated, partly on and partly at the foot of a bluff facing the St. Lawrence. (See Fig. 317.) These heights at the head of the St. Lawrence estuary, and the former head of navigation, furnished the best possible situation for a

fortified town. Hence the old city was built on the bluff. Quebec was formerly the chief commercial city of the province because of its location. In late years it has yielded that supremacy to Montreal, because the St. Lawrence has been so deepened that ocean-going vessels can reach the latter city.

Montreal, with a population more than five times as great as that of Quebec, is the largest city in the Dominion. It is also the chief commercial city, both for water and land transportation, since it is an important railroad center, and the terminus for the Great Lakes steamship lines. (See Fig. 313.)

ONTARIO

Climate and Soil. Ontario includes the portion of the St. Lawrence Valley west of Quebec and the Canadian portion of the Basin of the Great Lakes. It extends as far south as northern Pennsylvania and as far north as Hudson Bay. The summer climate is warm and the soil is well watered. (See Fig. 84.) The coast along the Great Lakes, except Lake Huron, is low, and forms good farming land. The northern shore of Lake Huron is high and rugged. Owing to the gentle slopes, favorable climate, and fine glacial soils, the

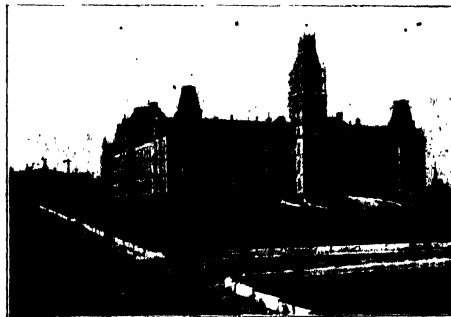


FIG. 317. The parliament house at Quebec.



FIG. 318. A fruit farm in southern Ontario.

region bordering Lake Erie is extremely fertile, and is often called the "Garden of Canada." (See Fig. 318.)

Products; Cities.

Wine, table grapes, apples, wheat, oats, and beans are the chief agricultural products. Ontario leads all the provinces in the making of cheese. The mineral deposits include rich copper and nickel fields along the north shores of Lake Huron and Lake Superior.



FIG. 320. A sawmill and lumber yard near Ottawa.

Ottawa, the seat of the Dominion government, is the center of a large lumber trade, and has the largest sawmills in Canada. (See Fig. 320.) Toronto, on the north shore of Lake Ontario, is the commercial center of the province and an important railway terminus. It is also the seat of the provincial government of Ontario. Port Arthur, on the northern coast of Lake Superior, is the chief outlet for the wheat from Manitoba and the Canadian Northwest.

MANITOBA

Surface. A large portion of southern Manitoba is rocky and contains many lakes, of which Lake Winnipeg

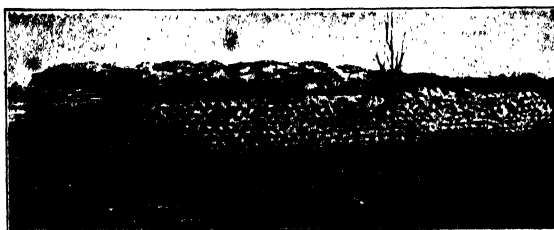


FIG. 319. A barley crop ready for shipment in Manitoba.

its waters into this basin. The outlet of the lake was through the Minnesota River into the Mississippi. Now the waters have drained away, and the level lake floor forms one of the most perfect plains in the world.

The southwestern portion of Manitoba consists of a prairie rising eight to twelve



FIG. 322. Main Street and City Hall Square, Winnipeg.

hundred feet above the plain, and deeply cut by valleys made by the east-flowing rivers.

Products; Cities. Oats and barley are raised extensively on the prairies, though the soil and climate are not so favorable for agriculture as in the lake plain. Wheat is the leading crop in the lake plain, as it is to the south in Dakota and Minnesota. (See Figs. 178, 179, 319, and 321.)

Winnipeg, at the junction of two navigable rivers, is the



FIG. 321. Stacks of wheat on the level prairie land of Manitoba.

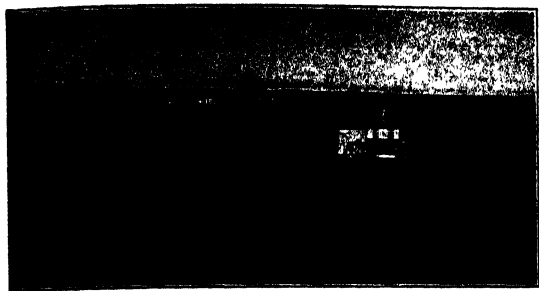


FIG. 323. A farm near Battleford, Saskatchewan.

chief town and railway center. Railroads radiate from it into the northwest as well as the south and west, so that the larger portion of the wheat sent eastward to Port Arthur and Port William for shipment over the Great Lakes passes through this city. (See Fig. 322.)

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Surface; Coast Line; Scenery. British Columbia is the third largest province in the Dominion and is mostly occupied by the Cordilleran Highland. The coast line is extremely irregular and is bordered by magnificent fiords and guarded by a great series of offshore islands. The highland region, with its magnificent canyons, extensive glaciers, beautiful glacial lakes, and steep-sloped mountains, is one of the grandest scenic regions of the North American continent. (See Fig. 311.)

Products; Cities. The wealth of British Columbia consists of minerals, forest products, and fisheries. The minerals include gold, silver, copper, and coal, and are being developed rapidly. The forests of the coast side of the mountains are largely made up of the great Douglas firs, the products of which are prepared for market along the coast and on Vancouver Island. Salmon abound in the streams and are canned in great

quantities. Halibut, cod, and herring are found off the west coast.

The agricultural land of British Columbia is chiefly in the river valleys and the river deltas. A large part of the area has too heavy a rainfall for agriculture, so that this industry is of little importance.

Victoria, the capital, is situated on a good harbor, three miles from Esquimalt, the most important British naval station on the Pacific coast of North America. Vancouver has the best harbor, and is the terminus of several steamship lines connecting North America with Asia and Australia and also of the one transcontinental railroad of Canada.

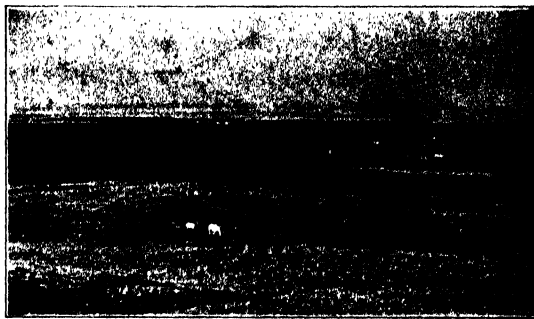


FIG. 325. A cattle ranch in Saskatchewan.

ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN

Surface; Industries; Development. The provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, except in the north where trees abound, are mainly flat, treeless, grassy plains. Agriculture is largely developed in southern Saskatchewan; wheat, barley, and oats are the chief crops. The rest of the area is mainly devoted to grazing, particularly to the raising of cattle, horses (see Fig. 326), and sheep. This is true of the southern continuation of the plain in the United States. (See Figs. 184, 323, 324, and 325.)

The Territories.

The northern section of Canada is known as the Northwest Territories. This whole



FIG. 324. A sheep ranch in Saskatchewan.

area is thinly populated and large parts are little known. The only inhabitants are a few white fur traders, wandering Indians, and the Eskimos who live along the coast. With the discovery of gold in the river gravels of the tributaries of the Yukon River, in 1896, the Yukon Valley leaped suddenly into fame. Dawson, the principal

Canadian settlement in the *Yukon Territory*, is the center of the gold industry. At first the only communication with the outside world was by means of the Yukon, which was open for navigation only about four months of the year. During the winter mails were carried over the mountains by sledges and men. Now a railroad has been opened from Skagway in Alaska to the head-waters of the Yukon, so that provisions can be more easily shipped to miners and the gold more readily brought to the coast.

NEWFOUNDLAND

Occupation of the People; Cities. The chief occupation of the people of Newfoundland is fishing in the neighboring waters. (See Fig. 327.) Lobster canning is important.

Iron and copper are found in the island and are mined. Coal, silver, and lead also exist.

The neighboring islands of *St. Pierre* and *Miquelon* belong to France and are also centers of the fishing industry.

St. Johns, the capital of Newfoundland, is a small town situated on a good harbor and therefore is the most important trade center on the island. It exports fish and manufactures cod-liver oil.

GREENLAND

Surface. Greenland, the largest island in the world, belongs to Denmark. The interior is wholly covered by ice, above which no mountains show. The coast is everywhere bordered by mountains and abounds in magnificent fiords.

People. The only white people are found along the southwest-

ern coast, where the low plain gives an opportunity for permanent settlement. Here are a few Danes in the small towns, but the larger portion of the population of Greenland is made up of Eskimos. The Eskimos depend upon hunting and fishing for their living, and travel great distances in the summer months to get their necessary food.

Towns and Trade. The only towns are *Godthaab* and *Upernivik*; the latter is the most northerly permanent settlement in the world.

What little trade the island has is chiefly with Denmark, and includes the down gathered from the eider duck, furs, and fish products.

Questions and Exercises

(1) When Canada has such an indented coast why are there not more good harbors? (2) Is the port of Vancouver closed in winter? Of Quebec? Of Montreal? (3) Draw a map of the great highway of the St. Lawrence and indicate the chief canals which aid navigation. (4) Locate the chief Canadian and American cities on this waterway (5) Why are the Mac-

kenzie and the Yukon rivers of so comparatively little commercial importance?

(6) Which city has more sunny days in winter, Montreal or Victoria? Give the reason. (7) How is the winter life of the two cities different? (8) Is the commerce of the Great Lakes closed



FIG. 326. A corral of horses in Alberta.

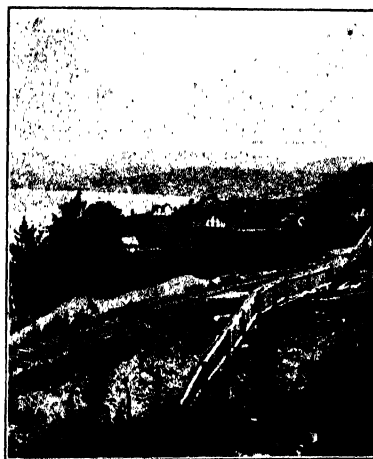


FIG. 327. A fishing village on the shore of Newfoundland.

in winter? (Consult Fig. 82 for your answer.) (9) What influence upon the climate of the surrounding country do the Great Lakes have? (10) Why can grapes ripen in southern Ontario and not in eastern Montana?

(11) From what ports do steamers carry the exports of Canada to the United Kingdom? (12) Trace the routes across the Atlantic. (13) Locate the chief harbors of each of the maritime provinces. (14) How does the fog affect the fishermen off these coasts? Steamer traffic across the ocean? (15) Tell of the importance of Halifax to the United Kingdom.

(16) Describe the location of the city of Quebec. (17) Why is Montreal better located as an ocean trade route terminus than Quebec? (18) Draw the ocean and land routes which terminate at Montreal. (19) On an outline map of the world show the trade route between China and England via the Canadian Pacific. (20) Find the approximate distance by this route between Liverpool or Southampton and Yokohama. (21) Why is Ottawa well located for a capital city?

Many of the highest mountains are nearly extinct volcanoes, which tower above the snow line in peaks of great beauty. *Orizaba*, *Popocatepetl*, and *Ixtaccihuatl* are the best known and most majestic peaks. *Orizaba* is one of the highest mountains of the continent. The *Nevado de Toluca* is especially famous for its beautiful crater lake, which is also noteworthy because it is one of the highest lakes in the world.

The only considerable lowland is the narrow eastern plain bordering the Gulf of

Mexico and including Yucatan. (See Fig. 328.) This plain is nowhere more than a thousand feet in altitude.

Drainage. The only important river of Mexico is the *Rio Grande*, which forms the boundary between the United States and Mexico. This river is usually dry in its lower courses in the dry sea-

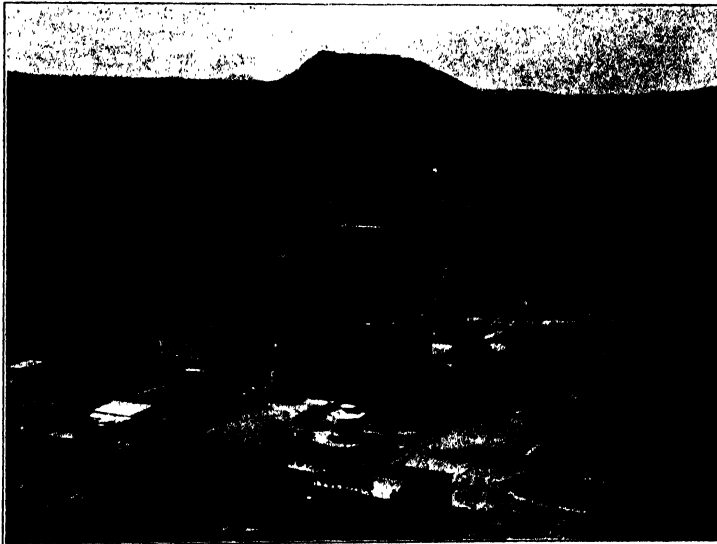


FIG. 328. A town in the lowland of Yucatan, Mexico, showing a plain with a low range of hills in the distance.

XXXIX. MEXICO

Size and Population. Mexico, the largest of the countries of southern North America, has a little more than one-fifth the area and about one-sixth the population of the United States. About one-half the people are Mexicans; the rest are whites and Indians.

Surface. Mexico is largely occupied by the southern extension of the Cordilleran Highland, which includes a broad, arid plateau in the north. High mountains surround the central plateaus, and rise from 6,000 to 8,000 feet above them. (See Figs. 173 and 334.)

son, and therefore does not form an adequate boundary between the two countries. In fact much trouble has been caused in the past by the cattle men of Mexico and Texas, who have driven their herds from one country to the other in search of pasturage without paying any attention to the boundary line.

Owing to the fact that Mexico narrows southward, and that the mountains run nearly parallel to the coast, the other rivers are short. Cut deeply into the western mountain walls are many dry, young valleys, or *barrancas*, formed by the rushing torrents of the wet season. During the dry season

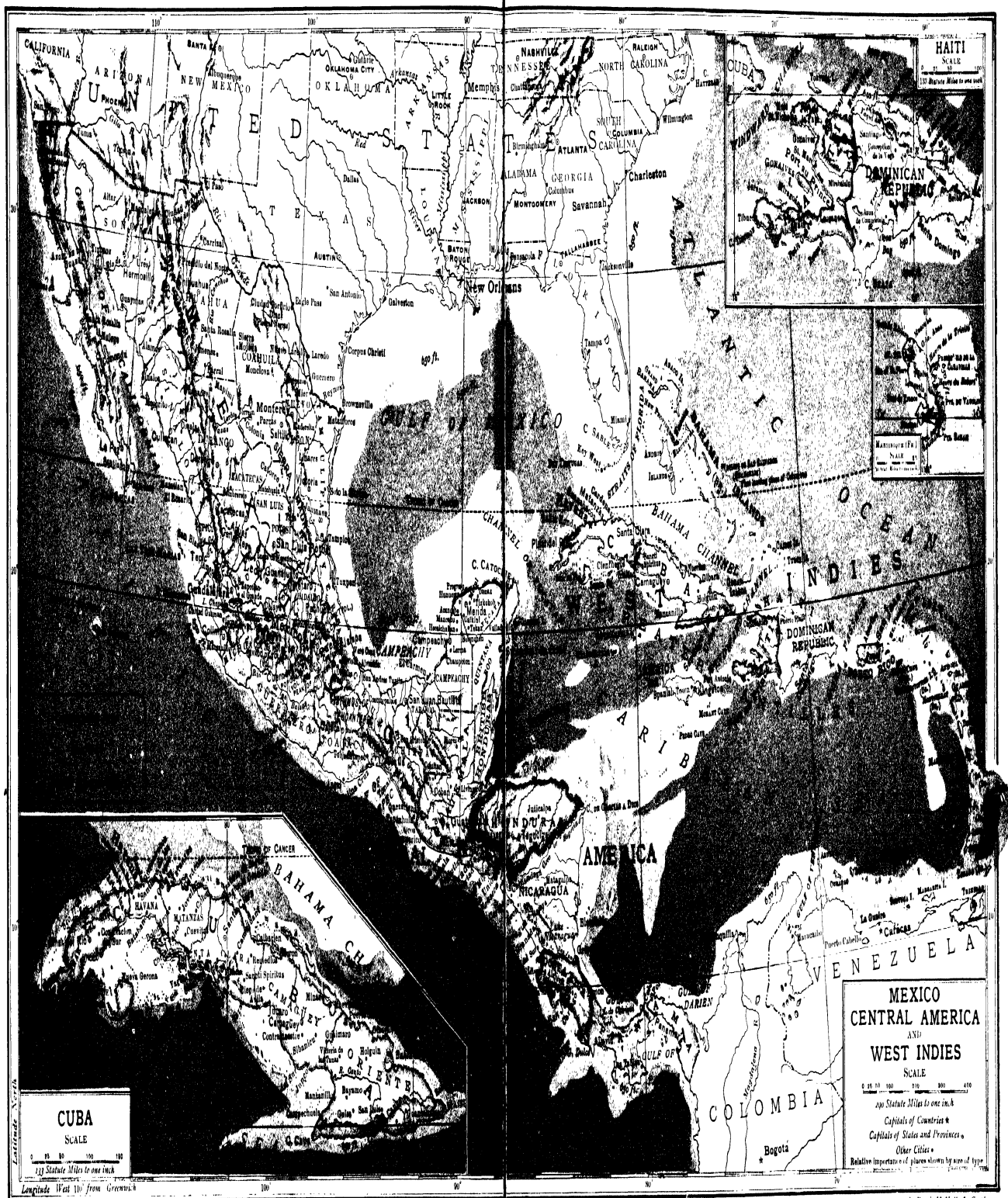


Fig. 329.

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FIG. 330. *Mexican women grading coffee.*

the streams disappear, but their valleys, clothed in luxuriant tangles of dense vegetation, form wonderful bits of scenery, even for a country that abounds in scenic features.

The northern plateau has interior drainage and few streams. Scattered over this region, as far south as the City of Mexico, are many picturesque, shallow lakes, some of which are only two or three feet in depth and are much less extensive than they once were. In fact, when the City of Mexico was first occupied by white people it was an island city, but now the surrounding lake has retreated and the resulting swamp has been drained.

Climate and Rainfall. Mexico lies entirely in the Hot Belt and is blown over by the trade winds. The climate, however, is extremely varied, owing to the influence of the highlands, which run nearly at right angles to the general direction of the winds, and which rise so high that their peaks have a climate like that of the Cold Caps.

The hottest portion, known as the Hot Lands, extends from sea level up to about 3,000 feet, and is occupied by tropical vegetation. Between 3,000 and 7,000 feet the climate and vegetation are temperate, and this region is therefore known as the Temperate Lands. From 7,000 to 10,000 or 11,000 feet the climate is cool, like that of the northern portions of the North Temperate Belt; the higher peaks are clothed in perpetual snow.

The rainy season begins in May and lasts until October. During the height of the season heavy rains fall almost daily in the lower altitudes, and the vegetation bursts into bloom. In the dry season there is practically no rainfall, and everything dries up or ceases growing. The heaviest rainfall is on the eastern mountain slopes, where, in places, it is as much as one hundred and thirty inches. (See Fig. 97.) The interior plateau, being shut off from the influence of the trade winds, is deficient in moisture; in some places the annual rainfall is less than twenty inches.

Products of the Soil. Owing to the warm, moist climate and the great abundance of sunshine in the Hot and Temperate Lands, the



FIG. 331. *A market scene in Tampico, a Gulf port steadily growing in importance.*

products of Mexico are mostly agricultural. (See Fig. 184.) In the Hot Lands cotton, coffee (see Fig. 330), cacao, vanilla, and tropical fruits are raised in abundance, and on the plains of Yucatan the valuable fiber *henequen*, used for making rope and sacking, is the chief crop. Mahogany, logwood, and other valuable tropical woods are found in the forests covering the lower slopes. In parts of this area the vegetation is so dense that travel is well-nigh impossible; hence the population in the forest region is very scattered.

In the Temperate Lands maize or Indian corn, beans, and tobacco are the principal crops. Cochineal insects also are raised. They live on a certain form of cactus and are

valuable as a red dye. In the plateau area are found the agaves, or maguey plants. (See Figs. 125 and 332.) They furnish valuable fibers, and their juices, when fermented, form *pulque* and *mescal*, the national alcoholic drinks.

Corn, wheat, and many other cereals common in the Temperate Belt abound in the cool zone and in the interior plateau. The leading cereal is maize and in its production Mexico is outranked only by the United States, Austria-Hungary, and Argentine Republic. (See Fig. 572.) The trees of the temperate and cool zones are evergreens, found particularly in higher latitudes. They cover the mountain slopes to a height of 13,000 feet, and form dense forests as high as 11,000 feet. It is in the cool region that we find the densest population.

In the drier northern regions of the plateau, agriculture is possible only by means of irrigation. Hence grazing is the chief industry. Sheep are raised in large numbers for their wool, which is of a very fine quality. Large parts of this area are unoccupied.

Mineral Products. The mineral wealth of the mountain areas of Mexico is enormous. Silver is the most valuable mineral product;

in fact, Mexico produces about one-third of the silver of the world, and has vast areas as yet untouched. It is the second nation in the production of copper, and is rich in iron, coal, quicksilver, and other mineral products, though the latter have not been developed to any considerable extent. Sulphur is found

in the volcanic areas, and jasper, Mexican onyx, and other gems and precious stones are found and exported in considerable quantities. (See Figs. 333 and 588.)

Trade and Cities. Nearly seventy per cent of the exports of Mexico are precious metals, for most of the agri-

cultural products are used at home. Cabinet woods, heniquen, vanilla, coffee, tobacco, cattle, and fruits are exported. The imports are mostly manufactured articles, such as iron and steel goods, cotton textiles, furniture, and other wood products. The larger part of the export trade is with the United States, and more than fifty per cent of the imports are secured from our country.

The best harbors of Mexico are found on the western coast. Few of these are important ports, however, because the products available for commerce are mostly raised in the eastern portion of the country. *Acapulco*, *Manzanillo*, and *Mazatlan* are the chief ports of the western coast. Acapulco, with its magnificent harbor, is a coaling station for vessels engaged in Pacific trade. The harbor of Mazatlan is shallow and unprotected. Its chief exports are metals and woods. Manzanillo is the leading western port for the exportation of cotton, sugar, and coffee.

The trade of Mexico is mostly centered on the eastern coast, because the harbors there have better connection with the agricultural regions. This section is well supplied with railroads connecting the ports with the interior. The most important commercial towns



FIG. 332. A maguey plantation, a familiar scene on the plains of Mexico.

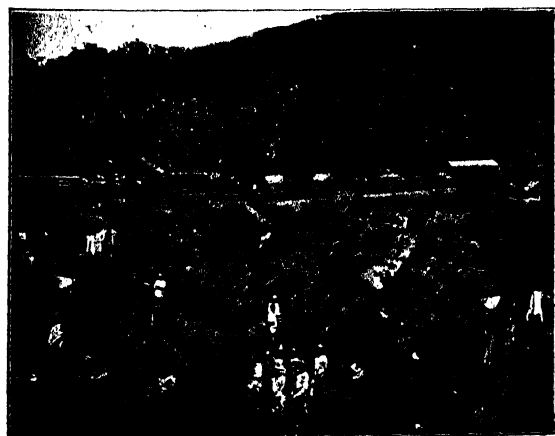


FIG. 333. A Mexican mining village.

are *Tampico* (see Fig. 331) and *Vera Cruz*. *Vera Cruz* is the chief port, owing to the fact that its harbor has recently been deepened so that ocean-going vessels can reach its wharves.

Besides the ports, the only important town is the ancient *City of Mexico*, the capital of the country. It is situated at an elevation of more than 7,000 feet, and is one of the most interesting old cities of America. It abounds in beautiful buildings built by the early Spaniards, in close association with which are found the modern buildings erected within recent years. The modern buildings are largely the result of the activity of people from the United States who have recently gone there to engage in manufacturing and agriculture. The cathedral of Mexico, built by the early Spaniards and still used as a place of worship by the Catholics, is one of the most famous and beautiful buildings of the Western Hemisphere. The *City of Mexico* is connected with the United States by two trunk lines of railroad.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What is the area of Mexico? (2) How many of the eastern states of the United States could be included in its area? (3) From a study of its surface, what reason can you give for its being so thinly inhabited?

(4) Which of the volcanic peaks mentioned in the text can be seen from the *City of Mexico*? (5) What does *Rio Grande* mean? (6) In what months is the lower course of this river usually dry? (7) What is meant by *interior drainage*? (8) Mention localities in the United States where interior basins are found.

(9) What is the January and July temperature of the *City of Mexico*? (10) Which has the more healthful climate, Mexico or *Vera Cruz*? (11) Describe how in passing from *Vera Cruz* to the upper slopes of Mount *Popocatepetl* you

would pass through three zones of climate. (12) What contrast in vegetation would you see going on the railroad from *Vera Cruz* to Mexico? (13) On an outline map of Mexico, draw arrows showing the winds of the eastern and western coasts. (14) Color the map with shades of blue to show the regions of rainfall. (15) Locate a town in the region of heavy and light rainfall. (16) What influence has the northward movement of the Heat Equator upon the rains of Mexico?

(17) Where is the forest region and what are its products? (18) What tropical fruits are sent to the United States? From what port? (19) Find out if possible the amount of maize raised in a year by the United States and Mexico.

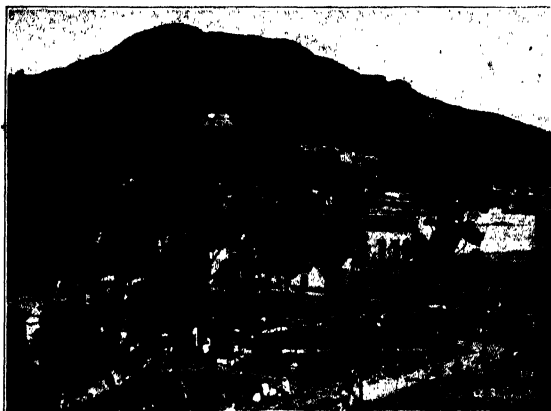


FIG. 334. The town of Pachuca, showing the rugged character of Mexico.

XL. CENTRAL AMERICA

Countries. The several small countries which make up Central America together occupy an area not quite one-half as large as the state of Texas. All these countries are independent republics except *British Honduras*, which is a colony of the United Kingdom, as are Canada and British Guiana.

Guatemala, the largest state of Central America, is a little larger than the state of New York; and *Salvador*, the smallest country in North America, is the size of Massachusetts. *Panama*, the most southern country of North America, belonged to Colombia, South America, until the latter part of 1903. It is now an independent republic, and is considered a part of Central America rather than of South America.

Surface and Climate. The whole of Central America, with the exception of a low, narrow plain on the eastern coast, is extremely mountainous. Owing to its position, the climate depends chiefly upon the influence of the trade winds. The eastern coast has a heavy

rainfall and is occupied by dense forests, in which the only inhabitants are Indians. The Pacific slope has a dry period from November to May. (See Fig. 97.)

Owing to the influence of elevation, Central America, like Mexico, may be divided into the Hot Lands, the Temperate Lands, and the Cool Lands. The best climate is found in the mountains at an elevation of over 6,000 feet.

Products. Owing to the warm, moist climate and deep, rich soil, vegetation thrives everywhere in Central America, and agricultural products are the principal wealth of the country. On the Hot Lands below 3,000 feet, characteristic tropical plants like cacao, india-rubber trees, and the cocoanut palm abound. The Temperate Lands, lying between 3,000 and 6,000 feet, are largely devoted to coffee (see Fig. 580), especially in Guatemala and Salvador. In the Cool Lands potatoes, grain, maize, and beans are raised, as in the similar area of Mexico.

Grazing is the chief industry in the higher, drier regions of Honduras and Nicaragua, where cattle are raised. Sheep are found in Guatemala. The mineral products are very rich, but are little worked. Hence they are of slight importance, even in home trade.

Trade and Cities.

Guatemala produces more coffee than any other country of Central America. (See Fig. 335.) The city of *Guatemala* by far the larg-



FIG. 335. A coffee plantation in Guatemala.

est city of Central America, is the center of the coffee trade, and *Puerto Barrios*, the only port of any importance, exports most of the crop. Guatemala does most of its trading with the United States and Germany.

The ports of Honduras are small and un-

important. Fruits, some gold and silver, and timber products are sent to the United States.

The trade of British Honduras is mostly with the United Kingdom. The principal export is timber, brought down from the interior by the rivers. Bananas and coconuts are sent to the United States.

Salvador ranks next to Guatemala in the production of coffee. Coffee, indigo, tobacco, and silver are the leading exports. The commerce of Salvador is mostly with the United Kingdom and the United States, and is chiefly centered in *Libertad*, the port of *San Salvador*.

The principal products of Nicaragua are coffee from the west coast, hides from the plateau area, and forest products from the moist eastern coast.

The chief port on the Caribbean Sea is *Blewfields*, but it is not easily accessible from the interior. Hence *Blewfields* is not so important in trade as *Corinto* on the west coast, which has a well-protected harbor and good railroad connections. Products sent to the United States generally pass through *Corinto* and then over the Isthmus of Panama.

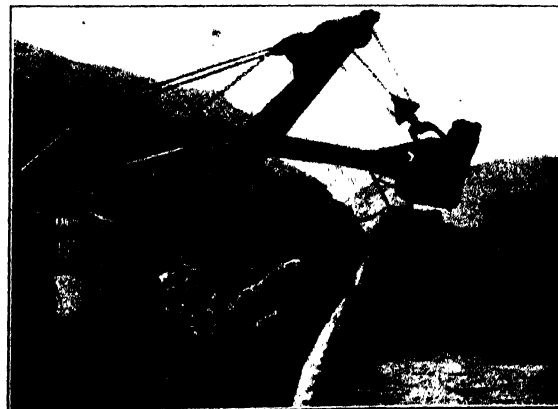


FIG. 336. A steam shovel at work in Culebra Cut, Panama Canal. Notice the rock in the shovel.

The dry western sides of the mountains of Costa Rica produce coffee of a superior quality. This coffee forms fifty per cent of the exports of the country; the larger portion goes to the United Kingdom. The other products of importance in trade are bananas, hides, rubber, and tortoise shell. Nearly all the commerce is centered in *Punta Arenas* on the western coast.

The products of Panama play a small part in the world's trade. Panama, however, is the most important country in Central America because of its position. The Isthmus of Panama has long been a barrier to trade, because all goods in transit between the Atlantic ports of North America or Europe and the Pacific ports of the Americas and Asia had to be transferred by rail between *Panama* and *Colon*, two ports on opposite sides of the isthmus. In a few years a ship canal, begun many years ago by the French, will be cut across the isthmus by the United States. (See Fig. 336.) Panama will then be situated on one of the world's great highways of trade, as Port Said and Suez have been since the completion of the Suez Canal.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What is the chief reason why these countries have not been occupied largely by white people? (2) What portions are best fitted for white races? (3) How does the climate of Central America determine its products? (4) Make a list of the chief products and opposite each write the name of the country producing it; in a third column write the name of the chief port of the country. (5) What products of Central America are found in Mexico also? (6) Mark with a cross the products which are sent to your home. (7) On a map of the world show how ocean trade routes will be shortened by the Isthmian Canal. (8) Why have Panama and Colon grown up?

XLI. THE WEST INDIES

Ownership. The West Indies include the great series of islands lying chiefly in the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. The larger islands to the west are known as the *Greater Antilles*, and the smaller islands to the east as the *Lesser Antilles*. *Cuba*, *Haiti*, and the *Dominican Republic* are independent countries. *Porto Rico* belongs to the United States, and the *Bahamas*, *Jamaica*, and several smaller islands belong to the United Kingdom. The remaining islands are possessions of France, the Netherlands, and Denmark.

Size and Surface.

The islands of the West Indies vary in size from Cuba, about equal in area to Pennsylvania, to tiny coral islands rising only a few feet above the sea.

With the exception of the Bahamas, which include about 3,000 low coral reefs, nearly all the islands are

mountainous. Many of them are volcanic, but until the eruption of Mont Pelée in 1902 it was supposed that the volcanic energy was weak. (See Fig. 337.) In 1907 an earthquake wrought great devastation in Jamaica.

Climate; Soil. The climate of the West Indies is tropical and, as in other tropical countries, the range of temperature is small. The changes of weather from day to day are few, except from July to October, when the islands are liable to be swept by severe tropical cyclones, which often do an immense amount of damage to crops and property. The rainy season comes toward the end of the summer, and causes a heavy daily rainfall. None of the islands has so well-defined a dry season as some parts of North America.

Owing to the prevailing moist climate and

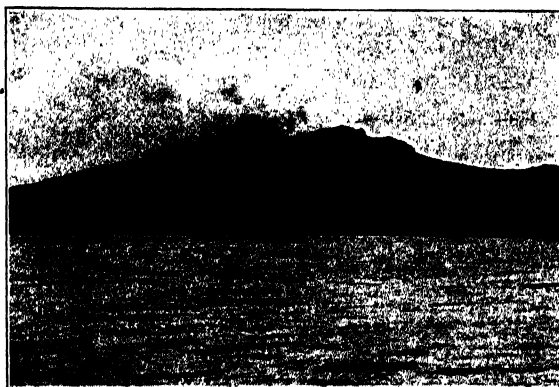


FIG. 337. *Mont Pelée, Martinique, in eruption.*

to the deep, rich soil, all of the West Indies except the Bahamas, St. Thomas, and Antigua are extremely fertile. Vegetation grows in tropical luxuriance on the windward slopes.

People. The progressive people of the West Indies are mostly of Spanish descent, and Spanish is generally spoken throughout the islands except in the English colonies. The region was formerly occupied by native Indians, but they have now practically disappeared except in St. Vincent. Negroes are found in great numbers on all the islands, and furnish most of the labor for the plantations. They outnumber the whites except in Cuba.

CUBA

Surface and Coast

Line. The island of Cuba includes about half the area of the West Indies and is the largest of the independent countries of that group. It is largely occupied by rugged mountains, particularly in the east and west, with a low-lying plain in the interior. The mountains are generally not more than 3,000 feet in height, although this height is exceeded in the province of Oriente. (See Fig. 338.) The coast everywhere is bordered by rugged cliffs, except in the central portion of the southern shore. The mountains are broken by many drowned valleys, forming land-locked harbors which furnish excellent shelter in times of storm. The most important harbor of Cuba is that of Havana on the north coast.

Productions. The soil of Cuba is the best in the world for the raising of sugar cane, and sugar is therefore the most valuable product of the island. The large plantations on which the sugar cane is grown can be made to yield seven crops without replanting.

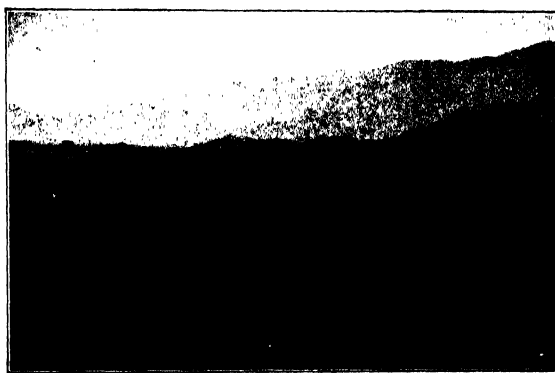


FIG. 338. *The mountainous surface of Cuba.*

Tobacco is raised extensively on the slopes of the western mountains, and forms the second crop in importance. Havana tobacco, as all Cuban tobacco is called, is much prized for its quality and is in great demand in the United States. Coffee, bananas, oranges, and Indian corn are the other noteworthy crops. Iron and copper are found in rich abundance, especially about Santiago de Cuba.

Trade; Cities. Most of the productions of Cuba are sent to the chief exporting points by coasting vessels, although railroads are extensively developed in the western portion of the island. The chief imports are flour and manufactured goods from the United States, rice from Europe and from the other West Indian islands, and salt fish from British America. The larger portion of the trade is with the United States.

Havana, the harbor nearest to the United States, is the chief exporting center for tobacco, and handles about twenty per cent of the sugar. The trade of the other ports consists largely of products grown in the immediate vicinity.

HAITI AND THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Trade, Cities. Haiti and the Dominican Republic are negro republics on the same island. The vast resources of the countries are not well developed. Coffee is the chief product of Haiti; cacao and logwood are also exported. *Port au Prince* has practically all the trade, which is mostly with France.

The trade of the Dominican Republic is chiefly with the United States, and includes sugar, tobacco, and cacao. *Puerto Plata*, on the northern coast, the chief port, is now closely rivaled by *Santo Domingo*, the capital.

JAMAICA

Products and Trade. The most important products of Jamaica are tropical fruits, sugar, rum (see Fig. 339), and coffee. The trade is centered mostly at *Port Antonio*, on the northern coast. Lines of fruit steamers, devoted chiefly to the banana trade, connect this port and *Kingston* with Boston and New York.

BAHAMAS

Climate; Trade. The Bahama Islands are best known as a winter health resort on account of their mild climate. The trade is principally with the near-by United States, and includes oranges, pineapples, and other tropical fruits, and sponges.

LESSER ANTILLES

Products; Trade. The people of the Lesser Antilles depend largely upon the production of sugar (see Fig. 340) for their living, and import most of their food. Cacao, spices, lime juice, and fruits are also produced for export. The island of Trinidad is noted for its asphalt. The trade of Barbados is mostly with the United States, but that of the other islands is chiefly with the several countries to which they belong.

BERMUDAS

Position; Trade. The Bermudas, a group of small islands about six hundred miles east of North Carolina, belong to the United Kingdom. They do not form a part of the West

Indies, though they resemble the Bahamas in being formed by corals. Owing to the influence of the northward-moving waters of the

warm Atlantic Drift, corals grow here farther north than in any other part of the world.

The trade of the Bermudas is mostly with the United States, and includes early onions, potatoes, Easter lilies in the spring, and lily bulbs during the rest of the year. *Hamilton*, the only port of importance, is the metropolis of the islands.

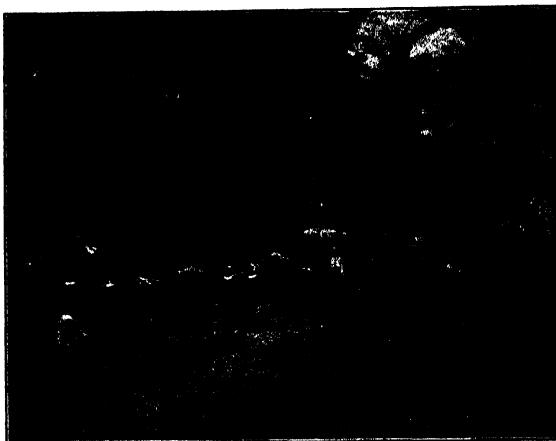


FIG. 339. *Hauling sugar and rum to market*
A characteristic scene in Jamaica.

Questions and Exercises

(1) On a map of North America color the West Indies according to the various countries which own them, leaving uncolored those which are independent of a great power. (2) Tell what you can of the recent eruption of Mont Pelée at Martinique. (3) How does the presence of the ocean affect the climate of these islands? Compare their summer temperature with your

own; their winter temperature. (4) From what plant besides the cane is sugar obtained? Does our country produce much of this sugar? How does the production of this sugar affect the sugar industry of Cuba? (5) On the map used in Exercise 1 locate the chief ports of the West Indies and draw trade routes to the United States. On the margin of the map write the imports from the United



FIG. 340. *Harvesting sugar cane, Martinique, Lesser Antilles.*

States; the exports to the United States. (6) Make a list of the products of these islands and opposite each write the islands where each is produced. (7) Why have the resources of these islands not been so well developed as those of the Mississippi Basin? (8) Make a list of the nations having possessions in North America, and opposite each write the names of these possessions.

SOUTH AMERICA

XLII. THE CONTINENT AS A WHOLE

Size and Position. South America is the fourth in size of all the continents. (See Fig. 28.) It is nearly twice as large as Europe, a little smaller than the whole Russian Empire, and contains about one-seventh of the land of the world.

South America was explored and developed by the Spanish and the Portuguese and to-day the larger proportion of the white inhabitants speak these languages. Throughout the continent are large areas that are but little known, and there are few cities of dense population.

The larger part of South America lies in the Hot Belt, and hence has a tropical climate and the chief products are tropical. The extreme southern tip of South America extends into the Cold Cap, and is the only land of any of the continents in the Southern Hemisphere having a cold climate. (See Fig. 74.)

Coast Line. The coast line of South America is regular, except in the south and southwest, where it is bordered by islands and indented by many fiords. There are few bays or estuaries forming harbors; the principal ones are at *Bahia*, *Rio de Janeiro*, *Guayaquil*, and at the mouth of the *La Plata*. (See Fig. 346.)

Surface. A large portion of South America is a great lowland, not more than six

hundred feet in altitude, and drained by the *Amazon*, the *Orinoco*, and the *La Plata*, with their tributaries. There are three highlands, two—the *Guiana Highlands* and the *Brazilian Highlands*—in the east, and the great western *Cordillera*, or *Andes Mountains*, which extend the full length of the western coast. (See Figs. 341 and 342.) Some of the peaks of the Andes exceed 20,000 feet in altitude, and are the highest mountains in the Western Hemisphere. Over six per cent of the continent

has an altitude of more than 10,000 feet, a proportion of high land exceeded only in the continent of Asia.

The Cordillera. The Cordilleran Highland of South America is much narrower than the great highland of North America, and is unbroken by water gaps. There is only one railway line between the countries of the eastern and western coasts, and the passes which can be readily used in travel or trade are few.

In northern South America the Andes Mountains consist of an eastern and western range, separated by the valley of the *Magdalena River*. South of the equator the mountains increase in altitude and are bordered on the east by the great plateau of *Bolivia*. Some of the peaks in this region are volcanic; the best-known volcanic peaks are *Chimborazo* and *Cotopaxi*. (See Figs. 69 and 344.)

The Bolivian plateau contains a large area of interior drainage, in which lies the great



FIG. 341. The position of South America among the continents. North America is the only land mass near by.

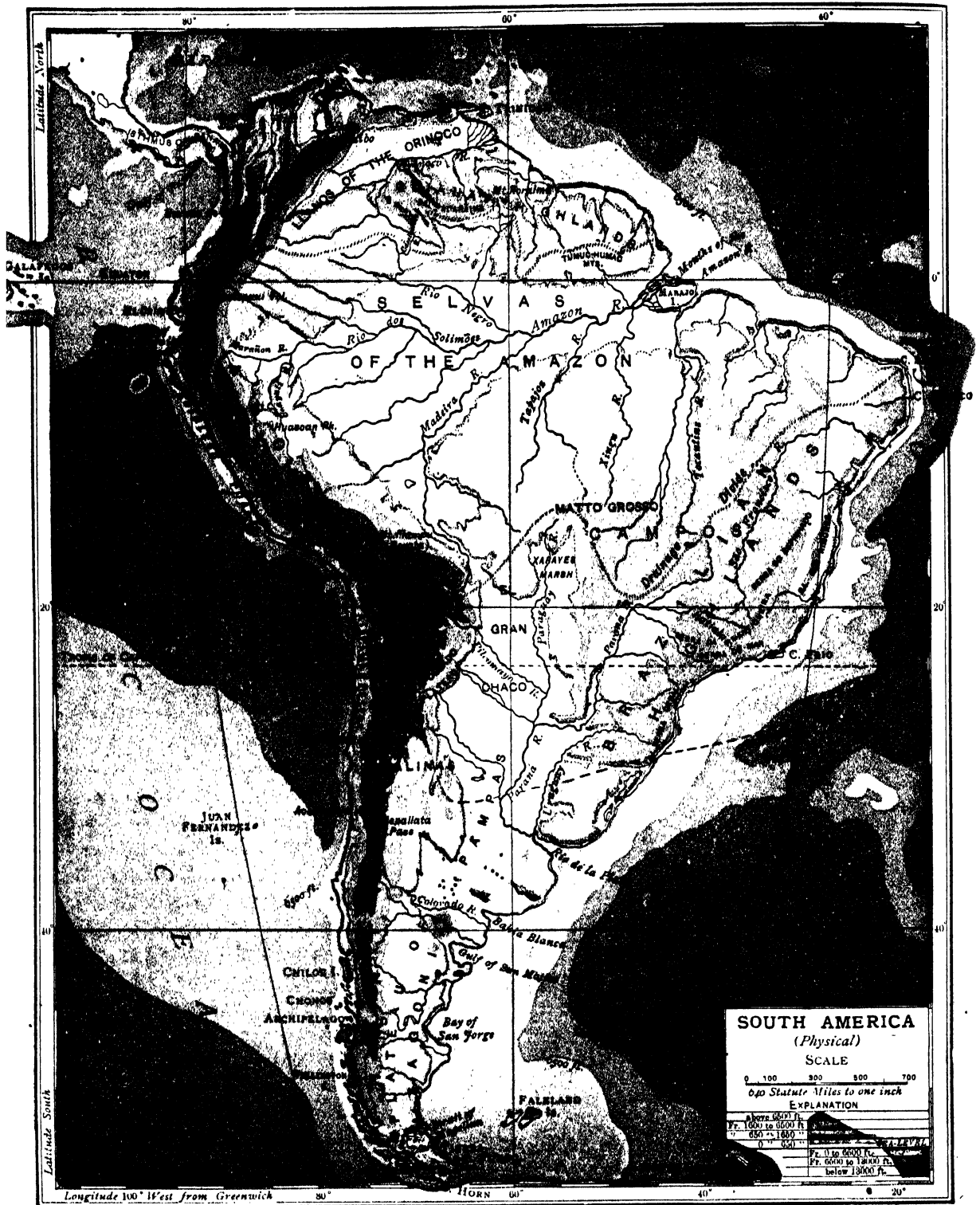


FIG. 342.

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lake *Titicaca*, at the altitude of 12,500 feet. (See Figs. 345 and 367.) The two principal mountains of this plateau are *Illampu* (*Sorata*) and *Illimani*. High peaks extend south into Chile and Argentine Republic, where *Aconcagua*, the highest mountain of the Western Hemisphere, is found. The southern Andes have been glaciated and partially drowned, forming the fiorded coast already mentioned.

In the extreme south the mountains slope off into the plateau of *Patagonia*. This plateau contains a considerable area of interior drainage. (See Fig. 343.)

The Brazilian Highlands. The Brazilian Highlands occupy a large portion of southeastern Brazil. The mountains rise to their greatest altitudes close to the coast, where some of the peaks reach a height of over 10,000 feet. The largest rivers rise on the highlands and flow down the long slopes toward the north and the west.

The Guiana Highlands. The Guiana Highlands occupy the larger part of Guiana and of Venezuela and Brazil south of the Orinoco. The highest peaks rise to over 8,500 feet.

Rivers. The large rivers of South America all lie in the great plains and flow into the



FIG. 345. *Lake Titicaca, one of the few large lakes in the world at a high elevation.*

Atlantic, as do nearly all the great rivers in the world. These rivers are important routes of commerce. The *Orinoco* is navigable for nearly a thousand miles, the *Amazon* for 2,600 miles; the basin of the Amazon contains 50,000 miles of navigable streams.

The *Paraná* and *Paraguay* rivers, which together with the *Uruguay* form the *La Plata*, are navigable into Brazil, but are interrupted in their head-waters by rapids and falls. (See Figs. 347 and 348.) The



FIG. 343. *Along the rocky and precipitous coast of Patagonia*

Paraná and *Paraguay* rivers are important for their commerce, however, because they lie in the most productive temperate region of the continent. The only large river on the western side of the Andes is the *Magdalena*, which drains a large part of the interior of Colombia and flows into the Caribbean Sea.

Climate. The whole of South America, from the north coast to the southern tropic, is swept by the trade winds during the year. In the southern summer, when the Heat Equator is south of the equator in Brazil, the winds blowing in toward this region on the northeast and southeast bring much moisture, which falls as heavy rain. (See Fig. 97.)

Heavy rainfall at this season occurs on both sides of the Brazilian Highlands. The southern slopes are watered by the southeast trade winds, while the northern slopes receive

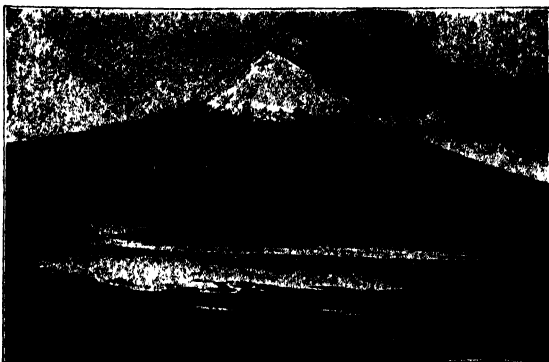


FIG. 344. *Cotopaxi, one of the most famous peaks of the Andes.*



much moisture from the trade winds that blow in from the northeast.

The northeast trade winds, moving up the Amazon Valley, produce a heavy rain throughout the valley, with the maximum on the east slope of the Andes, where the higher altitude causes increased precipitation. A heavy rainfall occurs on the Guiana Highlands also. All these regions have over eighty inches of rain a year, but the heaviest fall is found on the north-western coast, where it reaches a maximum of more than one hundred and sixty inches.

The western coast from Guayaquil to Valparaiso, being in the lee of the mountains, receives a very slight rainfall, in some places below twenty inches and in others less than ten inches. South of Valparaiso the western coast is swept by the prevailing westerlies, and hence receives considerable rain, with the heaviest precipitation in the winter. The dry regions in these latitudes are found in the east in the lee of the Andes, and extend to the coast from Bahia Blanca to the Strait of Magellan.

Distribution of Vegetation. The distribution of vegetation here, as in other continents, follows closely the distribution of rainfall. The dry southeastern section is occupied by dwarf plants. North of this region, near the estuary of the La Plata, grassy steppes

are found, with dry steppes farther west at the foot of the Andes where the moisture is less. The grassy steppe or *pampas* region has trees only along the streams. Farther north

evergreens are found near the coast, and subtropical palms grow abundantly in the *Gran Chaco*.

Southern Brazil lies in the savanna area and is known as the *campos*. The area is occupied by tall grasses, while farther north coconut palms are found. The plateau lying west of the Brazilian High-

lands, known as the *Matto Grosso*, or *Great Woods*, is really in the savanna area, but the increased altitude causes a heavier rainfall, so that forests abound.

The Amazon Valley is mostly a tropical jungle commonly called the *selvas*, and contains the densest vegetation on the globe. Palms, figs, and bamboos are the characteristic trees, around which enormous creepers twine, and from the branches of which beautiful orchids hang. North and west of the Orinoco, and in the plains of Colombia, is another great savanna area with tall grasses and isolated trees, and known as the *llanos*.

On the west coast tropical forests abound in the north, while the desert of *Atacama*, in the lee of the Andes in the trade-wind area, is practically without vegetation. In the

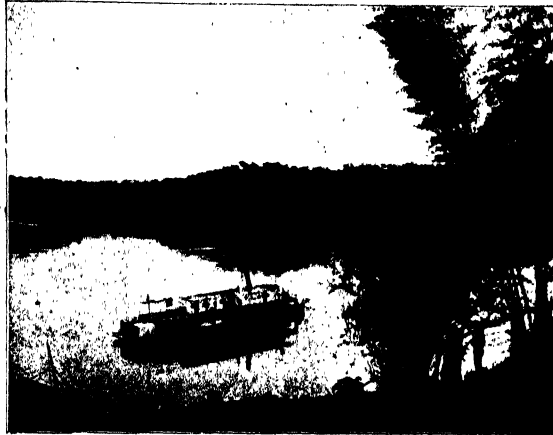


FIG. 347. The Parand River, Argentine Republic, showing a river steamer.

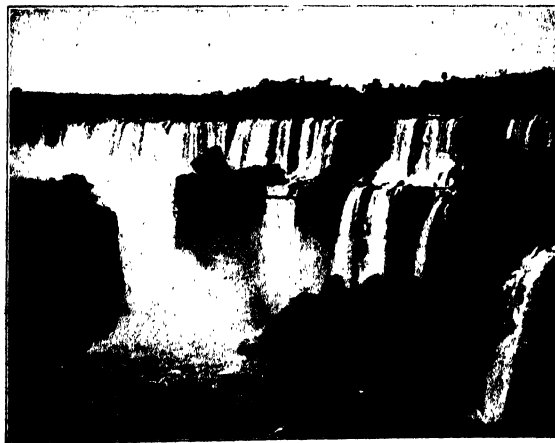


FIG. 348. Victoria Falls, Iguacu River, Brazil.

extreme south dense forests of evergreen trees occupy the western slopes. This forest region grades into a desert region on the north, and on the south into the dwarf trees and bushes characteristic of cold areas.

On the high mountains there is a great range of temperature and moisture, and hence of vegetation. In Ecuador and Peru one can find, by going up 12,000 feet, all the forms of vegetation common in the tropical, temperate, and polar regions.

Animals. South America is a separate animal region. It has already been described. (See page 75.) Among the valuable animals are the *alpaca*, the *llama*, and the *vicuña*. The llama is used as a beast of burden, and the vicuña and alpaca furnish valuable fibers. Horses abound in the pampas and llanos, and cattle are raised in great numbers in the wetter, and sheep in the drier and cooler southern grasslands. (See Fig. 349.)

People. South America has the smallest population of any continent except Australia. The natives are mostly Indians; some of them are very primitive, using practically no tools or implements. In the basin of the Amazon some of the tribes are even cannibals.

Europeans are found in those sections of the country where the climate favors agriculture and grazing. Portuguese are particularly numerous in Brazil, and Portuguese is there the national language. Elsewhere, Spanish is generally spoken. The Spaniards are the most progressive people, and occupy nearly all the other countries of the continent except the Guianas.

Questions and Exercises

(1) When it is noon at Pittsburg what time is it at Guayaquil? (2) When it is noon at Rio de Janeiro what time is it at your home? (3) How does the width of the continental shelf on the east coast of South America compare with that of the continental shelf on the east coast of North America? (4) What islands off North America are similar in position to the Falkland Islands? Galápagos Islands?

(5) Compare the highlands of North and South America; the lowlands. (6) How near the Pacific Ocean does the Amazon River rise? (7) How do the Brazilian and Appalachian highlands differ? (8) How do the western Cordilleran Highlands in the two continents resemble each other? (9) In what ways are the

western coasts of the two continents alike?

(10) Compare the rainfall of Bahia and the Matta Grosso, and account for the difference. (11) Why should Valparaiso have less rain than Córdoba or Rosario? (12) Give the reason for the desert coast north and south of the Tropic of Capricorn. (13) Compare the rainfall of the western coasts of North and South America, noting similarities and differences. Give causes. (14) What region in South America has features like the Mississippi Basin? (15) Why is the winter temperature of Norfolk, Virginia, so much lower than that of Buenos Aires? (16) What is the annual range of temperature of Lima? Para? Buenos Aires? (17) What difference do you make in your mode of

life in summer and winter that the people of Para would not make?

(18) What region in the United States has vegetation similar to that of the pampas? What is the chief occupation of each region?

(19) Draw a picture to represent Cotopaxi, and show the different vegetation zones from its base to its summit. (20) Write a list of the different vegeta-

tion regions of South America, and opposite the name of each region put the chief plants and animals that are found there.



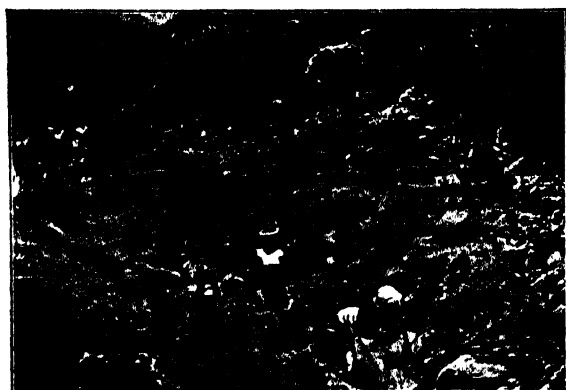
FIG. 349. Cattle grazing on the level slopes of the Argentine Republic.



FIG. 350. The great four-toed ant-eater, gray with a striking black breast band, inhabits South American forests.



FIG. 351.

FIG. 352. *Diamond mining in Brazil.*

XLIII. BRAZIL

Size and Industries. Brazil is a little larger than the United States, not including the dependencies and Alaska. It lies in tropical and subtropical South America, and is largely occupied by forests and grazing land. There is little cultivated land. The principal agricultural districts are along the southeastern coast and in the highland section just north of Rio de Janeiro. In the drier southern regions there are important colonies of Germans and Italians, who devote most of their attention to grazing, although some manufacturing of woolen goods is carried on.

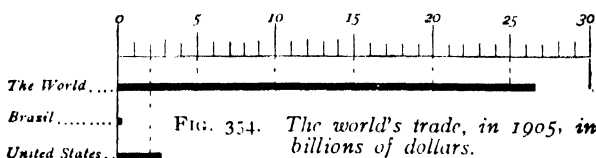
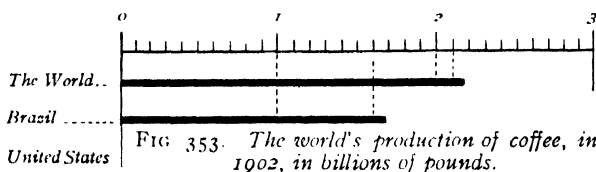
Products. The highland region north of Rio de Janeiro produces three-fourths of the coffee of the world. (See Figs. 353 and 580.) Other important and valuable agricultural products are sugar, cotton, manioc, the chief food of the people, and tobacco. (See Fig. 351.)

But the great wealth of Brazil lies in its forests and minerals. Rubber is the most important product of the Amazon region, and cacao is also produced abundantly. Other products are Brazil-nuts and valuable woods.

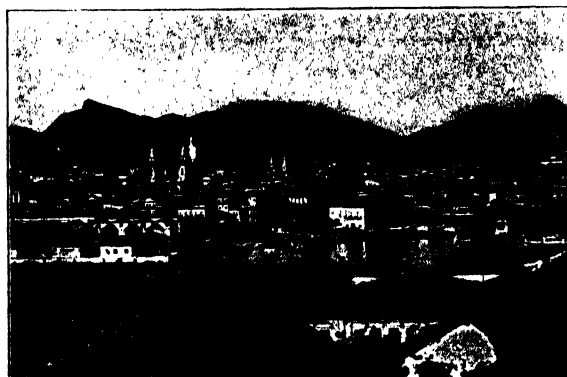
The more important minerals are gold, diamonds, and iron. Iron is little mined on account of the absence of the coal necessary for smelting, and diamonds are not so important as they once were on account of the much greater and better deposits at Kimberley in South Africa. (See Fig. 352.)

Trade. Brazil has nearly one-third of the commerce of South America, most of which is with the United States (see Fig. 354), Germany, the United Kingdom, and France. The chief exports are coffee and rubber, though hides and cotton are exported also. Brazil is the chief center of supply for coffee sent to the United States. The imports are food stuffs, coal, cottons, and machinery, for the most part from the United Kingdom and Germany, and wheat and flour from the United States.

Interior trade is largely carried on by boats on the extensive rivers of Brazil. There are few railroads except in the coffee region. Oceanic trade is largely centered at a few ports. Rio de Janeiro, the capital, has a fine harbor and is the chief port. (See Fig. 355.) Santos being nearer to the coffee-growing region leads in the export of coffee. Bahia and Pernambuco trade in sugar, coffee, and tobacco.

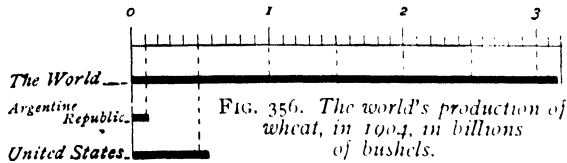


habor and is the chief port. (See Fig. 355.) Santos being nearer to the coffee-growing region leads in the export of coffee. Bahia and Pernambuco trade in sugar, coffee, and tobacco.

FIG. 355. *Rio de Janeiro, the capital of Brazil.*

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Describe the forests of the Amazon.
 (2) Why is the Amazon of less importance commercially than the St. Lawrence? (3)



Account for the scanty population of the Amazon Valley. (4) Why are Germans and Italians desirable immigrants here? (5) Make a list of the chief uses to which rubber is put. (6) Consult the temperature maps in this book and find out the summer and winter temperature of the coffee regions.

(7) On an outline map of South America locate the chief towns of Brazil and write their imports. (8) Draw routes between each port and the foreign countries with which it trades. (9) Find out what food stuffs are imported to these towns. (10) What city in the United States is about the size of Rio de Janeiro?

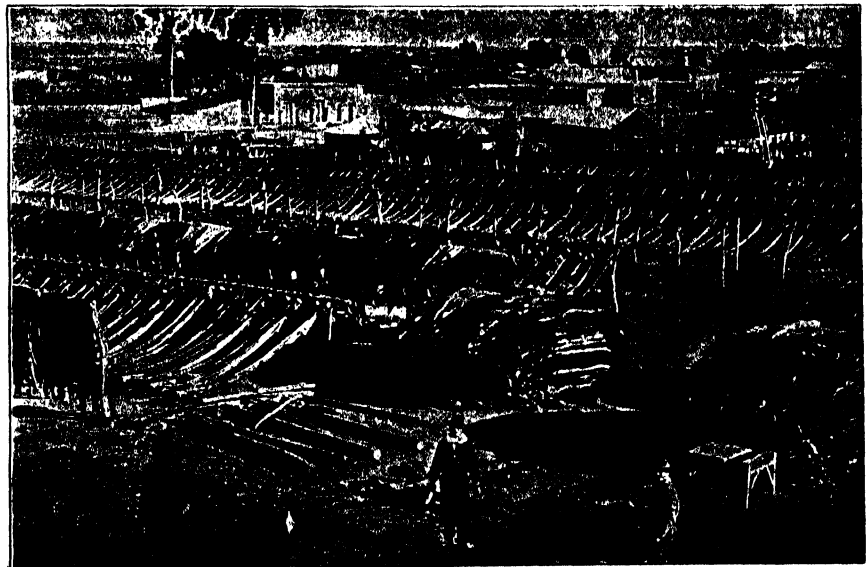
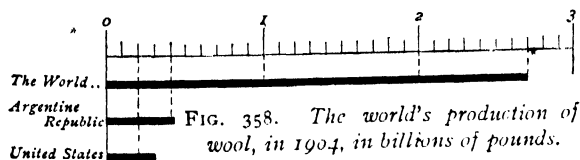


FIG. 357. Drying hides near Buenos Aires, Argentine Republic.

XLIV. ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

Size and Surface. The Argentine Republic extends from north of the southern tropic to the extremity of the continent, and includes



part of the island of *Tierra del Fuego*. The area is about a third that of the United States, and is mostly a great plain, broken only by occasional low hills. The southern portion is

practically uninhabited, and the *Gran Chaco* is occupied by wild Indian tribes. The Argentine Republic is the largest country in the temperate portion of South America, and has, therefore, a better opportunity for future development than any other portion of the continent.

Industry. The abundance of grass on the pampas makes the Argentine Republic a great grazing country, although agriculture is being developed along the lower Paraná by settlers from southern Europe. Wheat, flax, and maize are the chief agricultural products; the acre-

age devoted to wheat is increasing rapidly, and this product is now exported. (See Fig. 356.) There are more than 25,000,000 cattle and more than 75,000,000 sheep in the grazing country, most of them near Buenos Aires.

Trade; Cities. The wool produced is very fine and much desired by the manufacturing people of the world. It is natural, therefore, that the Argentine Republic should be, next to Australia, the chief wool-producing and exporting country in the world. (See Fig. 358.)

Frozen mutton is sent to Europe, particularly to the United Kingdom, and live beef to the other nations of western Europe.

Sun-dried or jerked beef is sold to the more tropical countries of South America. These products, with hides (see Fig. 357), form more than half the exports, which also include gold, silver, and copper. Iron, steel, and textiles are the chief imports. The Argentine Republic has almost one-half of the trade of the continent, a large part of which is with the United Kingdom, France, and Germany.

Interior trade is greatly aided by the fine system of navigable rivers and by railways, better developed here than in any other country of South America. A railroad joining *Buenos Aires* with *Santiago* and *Valparaiso*, Chile, thereby connecting the east and west coasts, is now practically completed. This railroad crosses the *Uspallata Pass*, at an altitude of 12,300 feet, by means of a tunnel.

Buenos Aires, the capital, is the chief port and the largest city of the Southern Hemisphere. (See Fig. 359.) Its harbor is not satisfactory because it has to be continually cleared out on account of the silting of the river. *Rosario*, in the center of the agricultural region, in time will be an important port, as the river is being deepened so that the city may be reached readily by ocean-going vessels.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What are the chief reasons why the Argentine Republic is the most progressive country in South America? (2) Tell how the

beef from the pampas reaches Sweden; Hamburg. (3) What effect on the trade of La Plata will the new Andean Railroad have? (4) Compare the distance Argentine wheat travels in going to Germany with that of wheat from Dakota and Manitoba. (5) Name some of the industries of Buenos Aires that result from its surroundings. (6) What advantages in location has Mendoza?

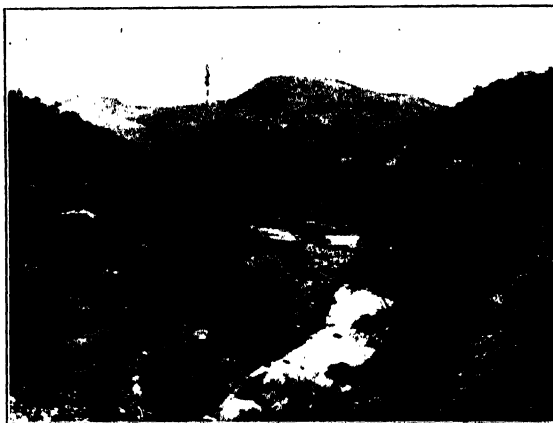


FIG. 359. In the valley just outside of Córdoba.

lic. Grazing (see Fig. 360) is therefore the principal occupation, though agriculture is increasing. Wheat, grapes, olives, and tobacco are raised to some extent.

Trade. The cattle products of Uruguay are exported chiefly in the form of jerked beef and beef extract. Wool is sent to Europe and the United States, and some wheat is exported to Brazil. (See Fig. 361.) A large part of the trade is with the United Kingdom.

Montevideo is the capital and chief city. (See Fig. 362.)

PARAGUAY

Surface and Industry.

Paraguay is a rich but undeveloped country largely occupied by Indians. The surface is made up of plains and low mountains covered by forests.

The plains are chiefly devoted to the production of Paraguay tea, or *mate*, and oranges.

Trade. Paraguay tea is cheaper than Asiatic tea and its use in South America is constantly increasing. Lumber is the principal

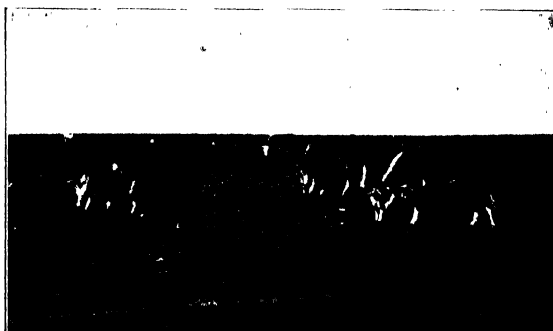


FIG. 360. Grazing on the grassy plains of Uruguay.

forest product, and is sent to the Argentine Republic and Uruguay, both of which lack timber. These products, together with hides and tobacco, are the chief exports. The principal imports are cotton goods, wine, and rice.

Asuncion, the capital, from its position on the Paraguay River, is the most flourishing town and commercial port.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What is the chief article of trade between Paraguay and the neighboring countries? (2) What does Paraguay import from the Argentine Republic? In what parts of both countries does wheat grow; grapes; forests? (3) Give the chief advantages of the location of Asuncion. (4) Why should the Argentine Republic export wheat to Brazil rather than to the United States?

XLVI. CHILE

Chile is a long, narrow country, about as large as California, Oregon, and Washington. It includes many islands and all the land on both sides of the Strait of Magellan. Northern Chile is a desert, and agriculture there is possible only where irrigation is practiced.

Products. The main products of northern Chile are nitrate of soda and guano. The agricultural portion of Chile lies in the coastal area between *Santiago* and *Valdivia*. This portion is the most densely populated; wheat, cattle, and fruits are the chief products. Both temperate and tropical fruits are raised. South of *Valdivia* the country is forested, and lumbering and fishing are the chief occupations.

Trade; Cities. Nitrate of soda, copper, iodine, and wheat are the leading exports of Chile. Nitrate is far greater than all other exports combined. Wheat is exported to tropical South America to some extent, especially to Peru and Ecuador. Sugar, beer, wagons, and machinery are manufactured to a limited extent, but most of the products are consumed at home. Textiles are the chief imports. The trade is chiefly with the United Kingdom and Germany.

Good roads and railroads are few, and the

high mountain wall of the Andes prevents goods from the interior of this portion of South America being exported by way of the western ports. Some trade, however, is carried on with the Argentine Republic over the Andes. Cattle are imported into the country along this route.

Valparaiso, the port of *Santiago*, the capital, is the chief city for imports, and is the most important town on the Pacific coast of South America. *Iquique*, near the nitrate fields, is the chief exporting center. *Punta Arenas*, on the Strait of Magellan, is a calling station for steamers, but sailing vessels usually go around Cape Horn on account of the strong tides and currents of the Strait of Magellan.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Through how many degrees of latitude does Chile extend? (2) What change in temperature is felt in going from *Valparaiso* across the mountains? (3) What is the rainfall of the northern part? Of the southern part?



FIG. 361. Transportation in Uruguay. To convey the products to the ports, often six to ten pair of oxen are used to draw the heavily loaded wagons across the country.



FIG. 362. Montevideo, showing the quays and the broad harbor.



FIG. 363. Nitrate works in Chile.

(4) What are the products of the desert region? Of the middle and southern regions? (5) What are the chief articles of trade between Chile and other South American countries? (6) Why is Chile so progressive a country? (7) What language is chiefly spoken in Valparaiso?

XLVII. FALKLAND ISLANDS

Climate and Occupations. The *Falkland Islands* are two small, wind-swept islands lying to the east of the Strait of Magellan. They belong to the United Kingdom and have a great strategic value for that country, because they are a way station on the great western sea route to Australia and India. Owing to their position in the "roaring forties," the climate is damp, though the rainfall is not heavy. There is but little sunshine.

Owing to the lack of sunshine and warmth, practically no trees grow here, but the extensive swamps produce much peat. Sheep are raised in considerable numbers, and some frozen mutton is exported. With the exception of beef and mutton, nearly all the food stuffs have to be imported.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Why are these islands so wind-swept? Tell of the drawbacks there would be to living in these islands. (2) What food stuffs are brought from England? (3) What flowers would grow there? (4) How will these islands be affected by the Panama Canal?

XLVIII. ECUADOR, PERU, AND BOLIVIA

Surface. *Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia* are extremely mountainous countries. Peru and Ecuador have a narrow lowland on the west and broad tablelands and plains on the east, draining into the Atlantic. Bolivia has mountains on the west and the broadest plateau of the Andes in the east. With the exception of Paraguay, it is the only country in South America which has no coast.

Products and People. The coastal lowland of Peru is dry in the south and has extensive deposits of nitrate of soda, while farther north in Ecuador, owing to the increased rainfall, the land may be tilled. The mountains are high, with few passes, but their slopes are cultivated in places.

The eastern regions of Peru and Ecuador are densely forested. The mountains contain rich deposits of silver, formerly much more important than they are now. The Spaniards, by the early subjugation of the native Incas, secured control of the valuable silver mines of this region. The inhabitants are very largely Indians, but they are intelligent, and far superior to the other Indians of South America.

Trade. Cacao, grown on the lowlands of Ecuador, is the chief export of that country, and is sent to France and Spain, to San

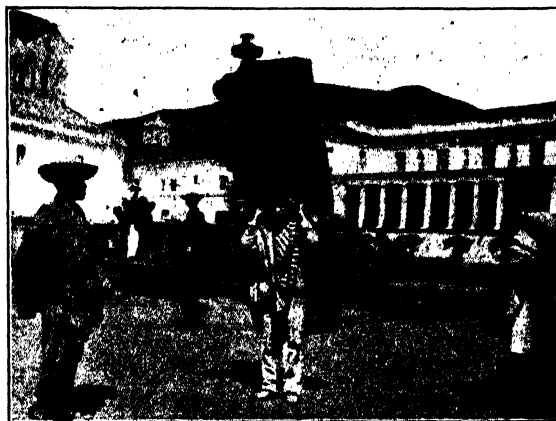


FIG. 364. Native carrier. A street scene in Quito, Ecuador.

Francisco, and to New York. Panama hats are perhaps the best-known product of this region. They are so named because they have to be carried across the Isthmus of Panama. *Guayaquil* has the best harbor on the Pacific coast. *Quito*, practically on the equator, is the capital of Ecuador and is a very ancient city. (See Fig. 364.) Owing to its altitude, it has a delightful climate.

Sugar and metallic ores, cotton, wool, and rice are the chief exports of Peru, though cinchona and rubber are exported in large quantities from the Andes down the eastern rivers. The imports are textiles and machinery.

Interior trade is carried on with difficulty because of bad roads and the lack of railways. A railroad has been built from Lima over the mountains to the silver mines, crossing the Andes at a height of 15,600 feet. Callao, is the port of the capital, Lima, and is the chief city of Peru.

Bolivia is dependent for its trade upon the neighboring countries. Silver, tin, copper, and rubber are sent down the eastern rivers. Some commerce is carried on with the ports of Peru and Chile. La Paz, with a population as large as that of Des Moines, Iowa, is by far the largest city. Clothing, textiles, and hardware are imported.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What advantage would it be to these countries if the Andes were no higher than the Rockies? (2) Show how the Panama Canal will benefit their trade. (3) Draw a diagram cross section to show the difference in vegetation between the east and west slopes of Peru. (4) Down what eastern rivers are the products

from Bolivian mines sent? (5) Find out for whom Bolivia was named? (6) What can you find out about the ancient Inca Indians of Peru? (7) How long are the days at Quito? (8) In what direction would a shadow point in Quito at noon to-day?

XLIX. COLOMBIA, VENEZUELA, AND GUIANA

Development and Climate. *Colombia*, *Venezuela*, and *Guiana* are undeveloped countries, though all are rich in minerals and agricultural lands. Guiana is composed of three

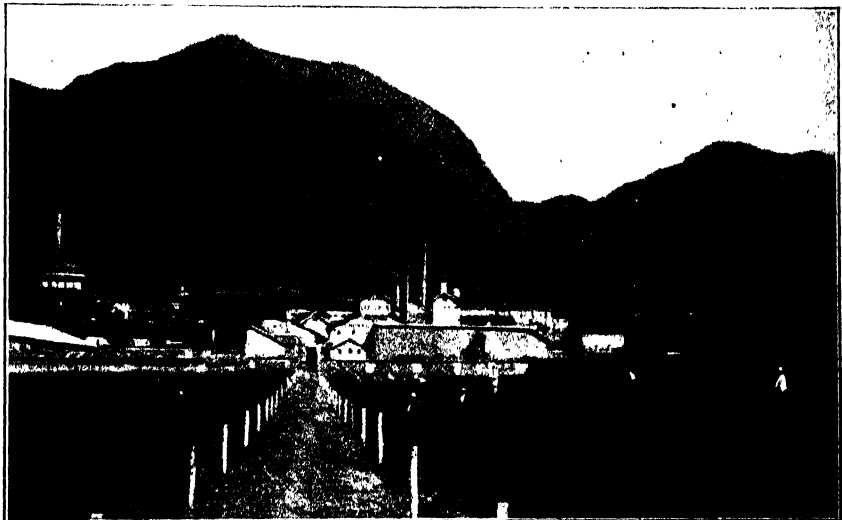


FIG. 365. A sugar plantation in a valley near Bogotá.

colonies held by the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and France. With the exception of Canada and British Honduras they are the only colonies in the mainland of the Americas belonging to European nations. The climate of all three countries is everywhere hot and moist except in the mountain districts. The lowlands are malarial, while the highlands are healthful. The most dense population is found in the highlands of Colombia.

Products. Cattle are raised in the plains and coffee is grown on the hill slopes. Rice is produced in the lowlands, mostly for home consumption. The crops of temperate latitudes are found in the high plains among the mountains. Sugar is raised in abundance in

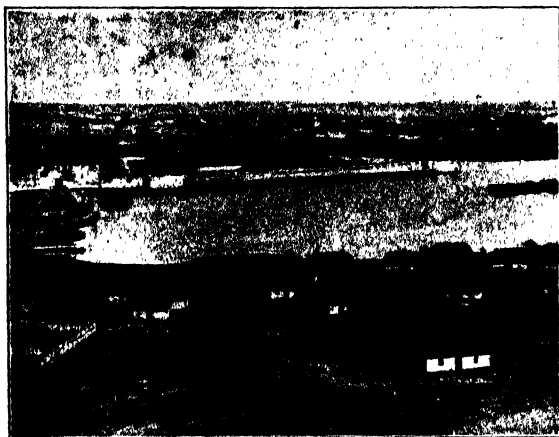


FIG. 366. The city of Cartagena, one of the two large coast ports of Colombia.

the lowlands of Guiana, and is the only product of importance, although it is now giving way to cacao and coffee because the people have found it best not to depend upon one crop only. Rubber, cinchona, tobacco, and sugar (see Fig. 365) are produced in Colombia, and cacao is of importance in Venezuela.

Gold and silver are found in all the countries, but the mining industries are best developed in Venezuela and Colombia.

Trade; Cities. Few of the towns of Guiana are important in trade. *Georgetown* leads in commerce, which is carried on mostly with the United Kingdom and the United States. Sugar is the chief export, and manufactured goods and food products are the principal imports. The chief inland towns of Venezuela are *Caracas*, the capital, and *Valencia*.

La Guaira, the port for *Caracas*, the capital, is a cacao and coffee exporting city. Venezuela has practically no railways and few roads. Hence its interior trade is carried on with difficulty, except in the valley of the Orinoco, which is navigable to the foot of the Andes.

In Colombia the Magdalena River is the highway of trade, and *Barranquilla*, at the mouth of this river, is the chief port and town. *Cartagena* once held this position, but its commerce has declined on account of the

silting of its harbor. (See Fig. 366.) *Bogotá*, the capital, is considered the most beautiful city of South America, and is well situated in a rich agricultural country.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Why should the highlands of these countries have a denser population than the lowlands?
- (2) Upon what products of South America do we depend?
- (3) What are the most progressive nations of South America?
- (4) Locate the chief agricultural regions; mineral regions; grazing regions.
- (5) Write from memory the names of the countries of South America and the chief cities in each.

SUMMARY

South America is, on the whole, unprogressive, except in the countries of the temperate belt and in Brazil. The governments are unstable, revolutions are frequent, and business cannot therefore be carried on successfully. The continent is deficient in railroads and highways, and hence the native riches are not developed. The exports are mostly mineral and cattle products, except in the few scattered agricultural regions. The imports are chiefly food stuffs and manufactured goods, especially textiles and steel. It is anticipated that when the Panama Canal is completed, so that commerce can be readily carried on between the western coast and the large commercial centers of the United States, the continent will develop rapidly.



FIG. 367. Straw boats used by the natives on Lake Titicaca.

EUROPE

L. THE CONTINENT AS A WHOLE

Europe and Eurasia. The so-called continent of *Europe* is really a peninsula of the continent of *Eurasia*, but it has so long been considered as a separate continent that we shall treat it as such. We can study the political geography of Europe without thinking much of the greater land mass to the east, but when we consider its climate we shall need frequently to refer to the relation of Europe to Asia.

Size and Position.

Europe is the smallest continent except Australia. Its area is only about half that of North America and not much larger than the area of the United States. (See Fig. 28.) It is, however, one of the most important continents because it contains a large num-

ber of the leading nations of the world. It extends in latitude over 34 degrees and in longitude over 70 degrees. (See Fig. 369.)

Europe is just across the Atlantic Ocean from the great nations of America (see Fig. 368), and is separated from the continent of Africa by a strait, which at the narrowest point is only eight miles wide. It lies almost in the center of the great land hemisphere, and, partly because of its favorable position, it has long been the leading continent of the world commercially.

Coast Line. Europe has the longest coast line in proportion to its area of any of the

continents. This fact is of great importance, because it has allowed many nations to develop within a small territory, and to have ready access to the ocean. Several of the great peninsulas, especially those along the northwestern and the southern coasts, also have extremely irregular shore lines, and for this reason abound in excellent harbors. (See Fig. 369.)

The people living along such a shore naturally became expert seamen and gained the confidence which enabled them to explore the great ocean to the west when they began to look for a new route to the riches of India and the East Indies. It was while endeavoring to find such a route by sailing to the west, that Columbus discovered America.

The Atlantic coast of Europe, from the Bay of Biscay northward, is bordered by a broad, shallow continental shelf, which surrounds the United Kingdom and extends beyond Iceland. It is over the shallows of this continental shelf that the best and most available fishing grounds are found. (See Fig. 376.)

Surface. Europe, like North and South America, consists of two extensive highland areas with a great lowland area lying between them. In northwestern Europe, extending in a broken line from Scandinavia to Ireland, is the lesser highland. It may be compared with the Appalachian Highland in our own continent, and the Brazilian Highlands in South America. The greater highland area



FIG. 368. The position of Europe among the continents

of Europe begins in the mountains of Spain and continues through the Alps, the Balkans, and the Carpathians to the Black Sea. Branches of this highland extend southward along the axes of the several southern peninsulas. It is interesting to compare this area with the Cordilleran Highland of North America and the Andes Mountains of South America. In the Western Hemisphere each main highland extends north and south; in Europe the main divide runs east and west. Between the great highland areas of all three continents is a great lowland. Each of these regions of Europe needs to be studied in detail so that we may know the way in which its features affect the lives of the people living in each area.

The Great Lowland Plain. The larger part of Europe is a great lowland plain, extending from the Atlantic Ocean on the west to the plains of Asia on the east. (See Fig.

369.) Eastern Europe lies almost entirely in this lowland, and its surface is in general rolling, with only a few inconspicuous heights like the *Valdai Plateau*. The northern part of the great lowland has been glaciated and hence contains many lakes, as in Finland, Scandinavia, and the *Valdai Plateau*. (See Fig. 371.)

The eastern part of this lowland contains many swamps. Across it stretches the natural divide between the long rivers of Europe, the *Volga*, the *Don*, and the *Dnieper*, which flow south, and the shorter rivers, the *Pechora*, the *Northern Dvina*, and the *Düna*, which flow north and west.

It will be noticed that all the long rivers flow into land-locked seas like the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea, and all the short rivers

toward the Atlantic or the Arctic. (See Fig. 369.) This is an important point in considering the comparative value of the trade routes controlled by the different nations.

The Highlands of Scandinavia and the United Kingdom. The *Scandinavian Highlands* rise to an altitude of 8,400 feet, and extend in an unbroken range throughout the Scandinavian Peninsula. These highlands have been glaciated and therefore abound in lakes, while the lower lands are covered with rolling moraines, so that the whole region has a rough, uneven, hilly surface.



FIG. 370 The snow-clad peaks of the Alps. Notice the glacier and the mountain house on the left

The narrow western valleys have been glaciated and then drowned so that the western coast of the Scandinavian Peninsula is one of the most famous fiord regions of the world. The shore line is bordered by many islands, which break the force of the strong waves so that coastwise commerce is possible at all seasons of the year.

The Scandinavian Highlands extend south and west into the United Kingdom, forming the highlands of Scotland, Wales, and northern England. Highlands also skirt the rim of Ireland and nearly surround its central plain. All the highland region of the United Kingdom has been glaciated and lakes abound, many of which are famous for their beauty.

The arrangement of highlands and lowlands in Europe forms a striking contrast to the arrangement of surface features in North America. In Europe the greatest highland runs east and west; in North America, nearly north and south. A corresponding difference in certain features of the climate results.

The Alps. The highest portion of the great highland of southern Europe, which begins at

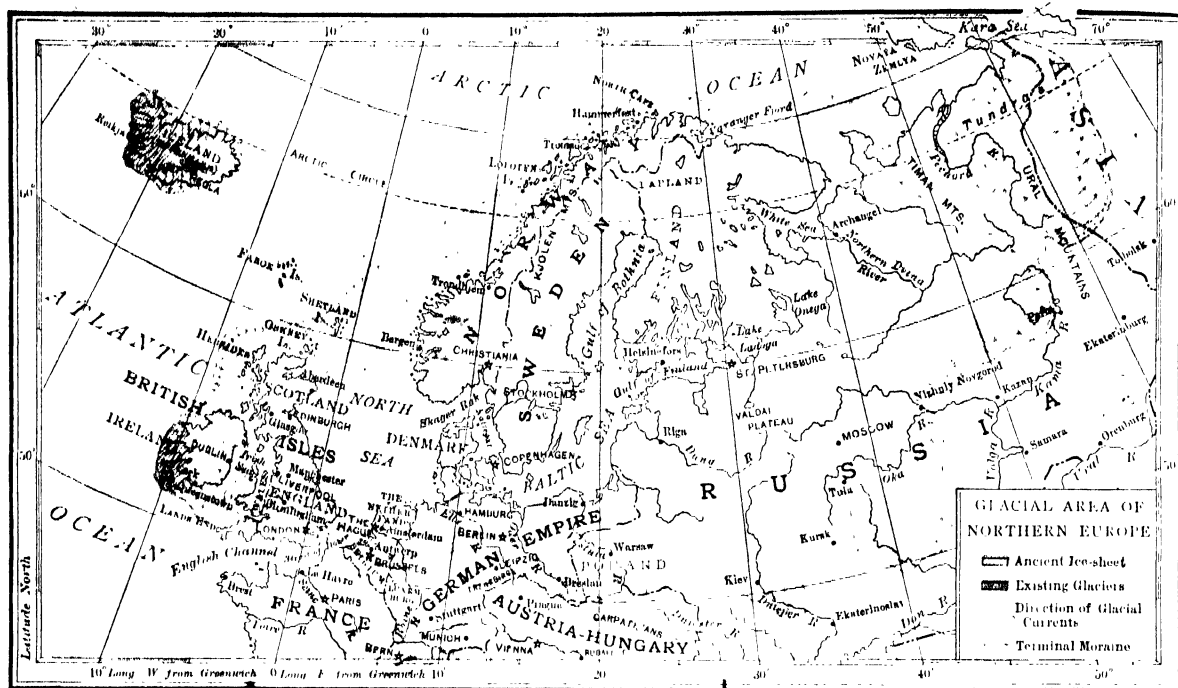


FIG. 371. A map showing the glaciated areas of Europe.

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the Atlantic Ocean and extends eastward to the Black Sea, is the *Alps*. These extend in a semi-circle from southeastern France to the head of the Adriatic, where they merge into the northwestern end of the mountains of the Balkan Peninsula and Greece.

The Alps contain many large glacial lakes, from which flow the *Rhine*, the *Rhone*, the *Aar* and the *Ticino*, of which Lago Maggiore properly is only an expansion. Each of these rivers gives an opening into the heart of the mountainous country, and is of great importance from the standpoint of travel and trade.

The Alps are so high and so cold, and lie in so moist a region, that they contain many famous glaciers (see Fig. 370) which are more visited than any others in the world. Ice and perpetual snow cover about 1,400 square miles of their surface, which is an area larger than the state of Rhode Island. The eastern Alps contain ridges of limestone rock which have weathered into pinnacles and points, giving a striking beauty to the landscape. This region is far-famed for its scenery.

Mountains of the Iberian Peninsula and Italy.

Southwest of the great highland region is the *Iberian Peninsula*, another distinctly highland area, composed in large part of a plateau broken by many short, nearly parallel mountain ranges known as *sierras*. The highest of these ranges are the *Cantabrian Mountains*, extending on the north to the *Pyrenees*. The *Pyrenees* form an important natural barrier between Spain and France. (See Figs. 372 and 374.) The only lowlands in this area are found in narrow belts along the eastern coast and along the lower courses of the rivers which flow out from the plateau to the Atlantic Ocean.

South of the Alps lies the *Peninsula of Italy*, which is largely made up of the *Apennines* and the volcanic heights along the western coast. (See Fig. 373.) The mountains are so close to the sea that the rivers of Italy are all short, except the *Po*, which drains the great plain between the *Apennines* and the Alps. Italy also contains the well-known volcano, *Mount Vesuvius*, and south on the island of Sicily is *Mount Etna*, almost equally famous.

Highlands of France. The *Central Plateau* of France, which may be considered a part of the great highland of Europe, consists of a series of old, worn-down mountains, above which rise many cones of extinct volcanoes. This region forms the divide from which radiate the *Seine*, the *Loire*, and the *Garonne* rivers. The Central Plateau is bordered on the east by the *Cevennes*, which face the valley of the Rhone in a steep and continuous cliff. To the northeast are the *Vosges* mountains and the highland of the *Ardennes*, separated from the highlands of Germany by a valley similar to that of the Rhone. In this valley the *Rhine* runs for a part of its course.

The Carpathian, Balkan, and Ural Mountains. The eastern portion of the great highland of Europe is made up of the *Carpathian Mountains* which bound the plain of Hungary on the north and east. These mountains are separated from the highlands of the Balkan Peninsula by the narrow pass of the Danube known as the *Iron Gate*.

The Balkan Peninsula is a mountainous country throughout. The northern portion,

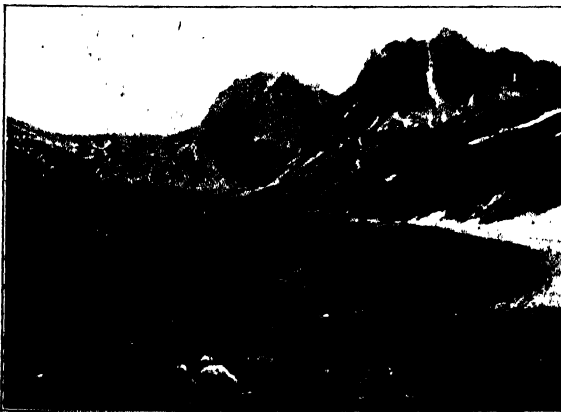


FIG. 372. The highest peaks of the Pyrenees, showing flocks grazing on the lower slopes.

which extends east to the Black Sea, is mostly occupied by the *Balkan Mountains*. Highland ridges also extend south through Turkey and Greece. It is the nearly drowned peaks of the southeastern ends of these highland ridges that form the many islands of the

great archipelago of the *Aegean Sea*. (See Fig. 369.)

Bounding Europe in part on the east is the ridge of the *Ural Mountains*. These are more a rise of land than a mountain range, and form

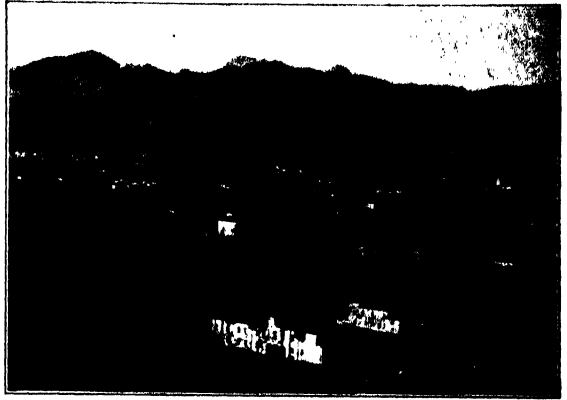


FIG. 373. In the mountainous district near the western coast of Italy.

distinct features in the landscape only in the northern and southern parts of their course.

Climate and Vegetation of Europe. The whole of Europe north of the Alps and the Carpathians is in the track of the westerly winds throughout the year. (See Figs. 82 and 84.) Northwestern Europe lies directly in the path of these winds blowing from the Atlantic. It has for this reason a more even climate than eastern Europe, which lies nearer the interior of the great land mass of Eurasia and is subjected to the great seasonal range of temperature characteristic of regions situated at a great distance from the ocean.

Europe is fortunate in that its greatest highland extends east and west. If it ran north and south along the western coast, as do the highlands in North America, all central and eastern Europe would be a dry steppe like the great plains east of the Rocky Mountains in the United States. With the highlands running east and west, the moisture-laden winds from the Atlantic Ocean are free to sweep eastward and carry a moderate amount of rain to the central and eastern portions of the continent.

Southern Europe is swept by westerly winds in winter, when the wind system of the world has moved far south. In summer it lies in the northern trade-wind belt when the wind system is farthest north. (See Fig. 84.)

In each of these three divisions of Europe—the northwestern, the eastern, and the southern—the arrangement of highlands has an important influence upon the climate, and the climate, of course, affects the distribution of vegetation and industries. For this reason we need to study the climatic conditions of the three great divisions in some detail, in order that we may understand the distribution of vegetation and of those industries which depend upon the products of the soil.

Northwestern Europe. Owing to the proximity of the ocean and to the fact that the continent is cooler than the ocean in winter and warmer than the ocean in summer, the annual range of temperature along the northwestern coast of Europe is very slight. The cold winter winds come from the northeast, but they blow for a short time only, and are not so severe as the winds that reach the eastern coasts of North America from the interior of that continent.

The greatest rainfall is in the west, especially on the western side of the mountains of Norway and the United Kingdom. (See Fig. 97.) Here the larger portion of the rain comes in winter, when the moisture, brought from the ocean by the westerly winds, is condensed over the colder land. The moisture and the rainfall decrease to the east, and the crops that can be raised vary accordingly.

The constant moisture of the air of western

Europe is of great importance in determining the kinds of industries that can be carried on. For instance, fibers of cotton do not break so easily when damp as when dry, and fine spinning can, therefore, be done only where the air is always moist, as it is about Manchester, England. The condition of the air which favors cotton spinning does not favor flour milling because wheat grains can be ground fine only when they are dry and brittle. Flour milling is, therefore, more successful in the eastern portion of the continent.

In the west, where the moisture is abundant, potatoes are largely cultivated. The warmth of certain parts of this area is sufficient for the grape to be produced as far north as the valley of the Moselle. Oats and barley, which also can be raised where the moisture is abundant, are found in the northwest, while wheat, which requires an abundance of sunshine, is found more



FIG. 375. A Laplander with his reindeer.

particularly in central Russia, southern Italy, France, and Germany. Rye and flax are grown in the center of this climatic area.

The distribution of forest trees also varies according to the climate. In the north, especially in Scandinavia, the trees are mostly cone-bearing and evergreen. Toward the south some of the trees are deciduous and some evergreen, while in the extreme southern part of the area, as in similar regions in the United States, only deciduous trees, like the beech, oak, elm, ash, and maple, are found.

The extreme northern portion of this area merges into the *tundra* region with its extensive bogs, in which many flowers bloom luxuriantly in the short summer, but which are practically devoid of trees.

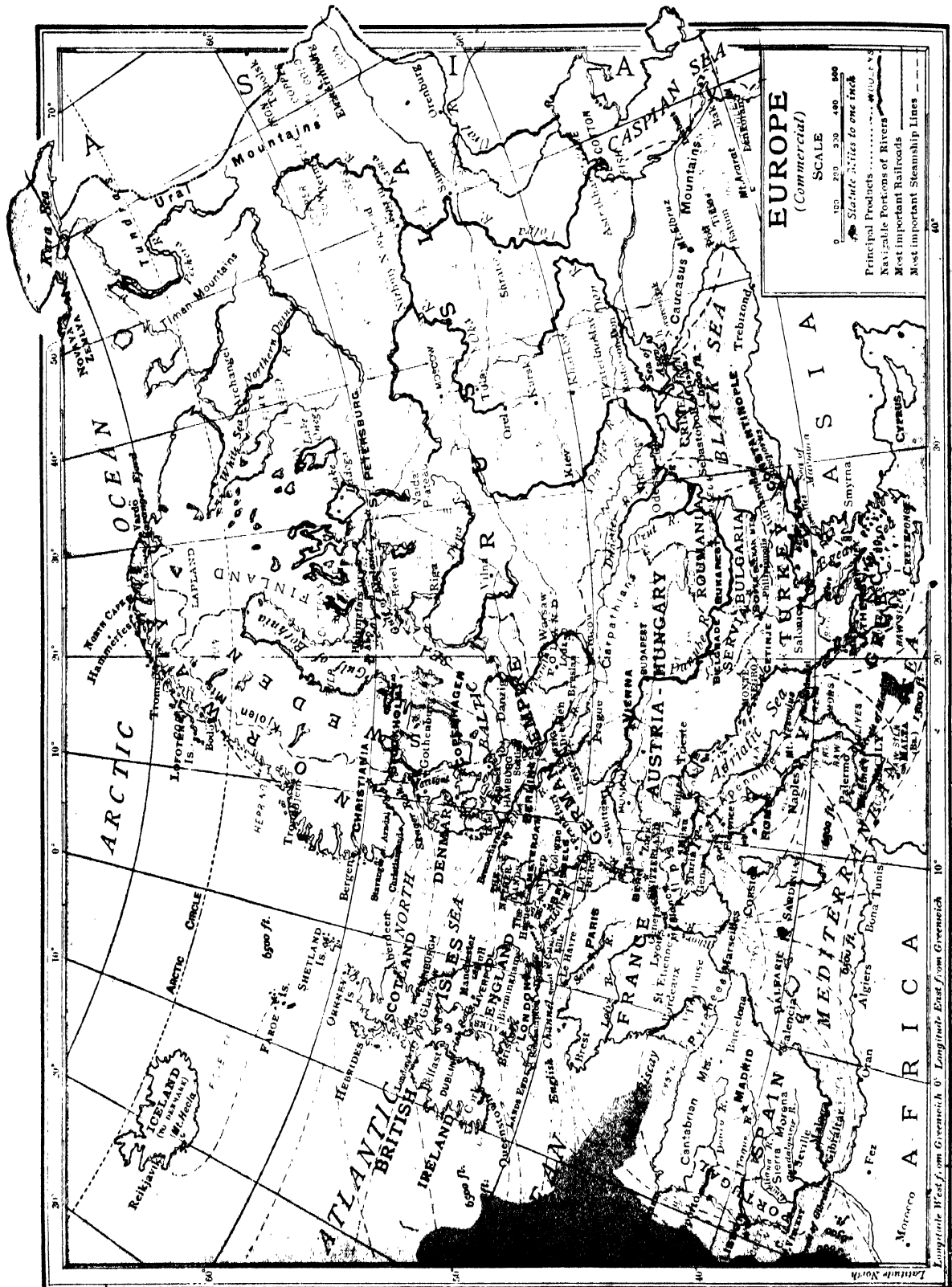


FIG. 376.

This is particularly true in the valleys of Portugal.

Minerals. The mineral products of the Iberian Peninsula are extremely valuable, especially in the northern and southern mountains. The iron of the north is very rich and pure and is extensively worked. Coal is generally distributed, but is little worked. Spain produces more quicksilver than any other country except the United States, and ranks next to the United States and Mexico in copper production. It also contains rich deposits of lead and silver. Owing to the lack of good transportation and to the backwardness of the people, however, the mineral resources have not been developed as they would have been in a more progressive country.

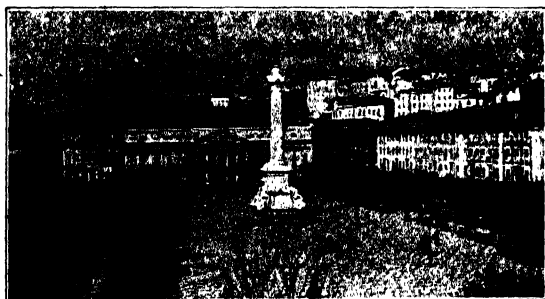


FIG. 408. The large public square, Lisbon.

Manufactures. Manufacturing in Spain and Portugal is not very important and the products do not supply the home demand. In this respect these countries form a striking contrast to the United States and the United Kingdom, each of which has developed great manufacturing districts near its coal and iron mines.

Spain and Portugal, with their regular coast line, have few good harbors. They have no great interior waterways and few railroads. This has prevented the development of iron and steel manufactures, and the importation of raw material for textile manufactures.

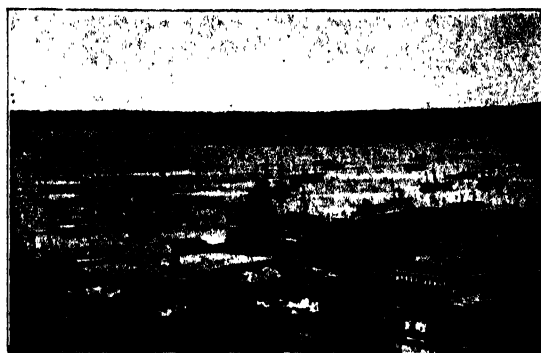


FIG. 410. Lisbon harbor.

Iron and machinery are made in increasing quantities in the north, and textiles are produced at *Barcelona*, *Lisbon*, the capital of Portugal (see Figs. 408 and 410), and *Oporto*. *Granada*, famous because of the Alhambra (see Fig. 412), also produces some textiles.

Madrid (see Fig. 407) manufactures gold and silver articles, glass, and china. Its chief importance, however, is due to its being the capital of Spain.

Trade. Owing to the lack of railroads and navigable rivers the internal commerce of Spain and Portugal is small. Wine forms a large part of the exports (see Fig. 409), and is sent chiefly to France and the United Kingdom. Oranges, lemons, olives, and cork are also important exports. The greatest trade is with the United Kingdom and France. Owing to the few available passes over the Pyrenees a large part with France is by water. The chief imports are cotton from the United States, wheat from Russia, timber from Sweden, and woolens from France.

Barcelona, the chief port of Spain, is the most enterprising city, though *Valencia*,

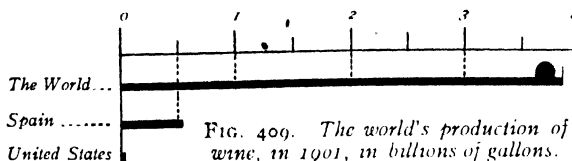


FIG. 409. The world's production of wine, in 1901, in billions of gallons.

with exports of silks and oranges, and *Malaga*, with grapes and wines, are also important. *Oporto* is the chief outlet for the foreign trade of Portugal, and gives its name to port wine, a leading article of export.

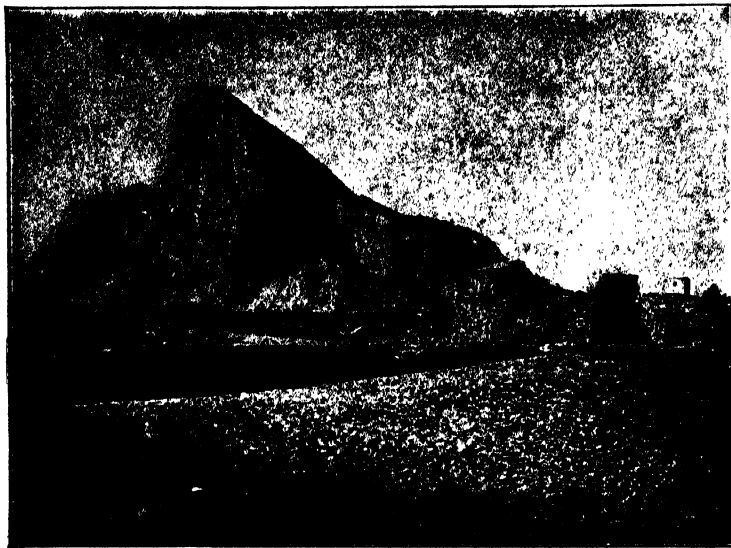


FIG. 411. The rock of Gibraltar, from the lowland peninsula connecting it with Spain

People. Owing principally to the geographic position of Portugal, the people have always been active in maritime affairs, carrying on commerce with the distant parts of the world. The Spaniards, on the other hand, were not content with trade, but endeavored to subjugate all the new countries possible, so that they could own vast riches of gold and silver. Spain was at one time a great colonizing nation, but through mismanagement the colonies have gradually been lost.

The Spaniards, like most people who live in subtropical areas, are impetuous and fond of amusement and excitement. They have many holidays and feast days, when all work stops and every one devotes himself strictly to amusements. The people of the northern provinces are more thrifty and differ strikingly from their countrymen in the south.

GIBRALTAR

Position. On the very southern point of Spain where it approaches nearest to Africa is the small peninsula known as *Gibraltar*. This is heavily fortified and belongs to the United Kingdom. As the Strait of Gibraltar is only eight miles wide, the United Kingdom really controls the entrance to the

Mediterranean through this fortress, its guns commanding nearly the whole strait. (See Fig. 411.)

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Find out how the area of Spain and Portugal compares with the state in which you live. (2) Through what part of Spain does the Greenwich meridian pass? (3) How much of Spain lies in east longitude? (4) Make a list of the chief rivers of the Iberian Peninsula and opposite each write the name of the body of water into which it empties. Mark with a star those rivers which are forming deltas. (5) On which coast are the delta-forming rivers most frequent? Why? (6) Where do you find a fiorded coast line? (7) What good harbors are on these fiords? (8) Why is there no town at the mouth of the Guadalquivir River? (9) What does the word *sierra* mean? To what mountains in North America is it applied? (10) Tell how the climate of Spain is affected by its latitude; by its surface. (11) In what way is the surface of this peninsula like that of Africa? (12) Why should the west coast have more rain than the east coast? (13) Why do the winds blow from the sea toward the land in summer? (14) What are the industries of the west and northwest of the peninsula? Of the interior? (15) In what way are the industries influenced by the climate? (16) Where are oranges, grapes, and cork oak grown? (17) What hinders the internal commerce of Spain? (18) What great continent suffers from the same drawback? (19) Compare France and Spain in this respect. (20) On an outline map

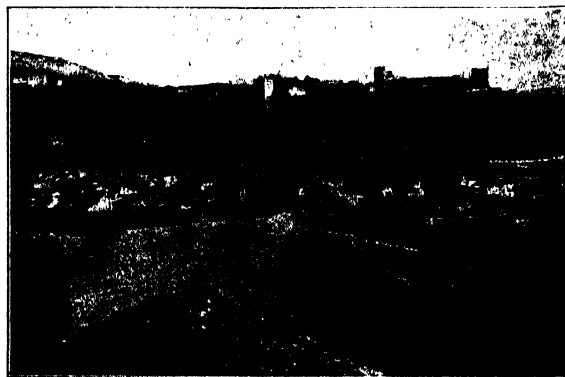


FIG. 412. The Alhambra, a great stronghold and palace at Granada, Spain.

draw the most important rivers. (21) Locate the chief ports and write near them their leading exports. Draw arrows to show where these are sent. (22) On the margin of the map write the names of the chief possessions of Spain and Portugal. (23) Locate the chief inland towns. (24) Give the chief reasons for the location of Seville.

LV. BELGIUM, THE NETHERLANDS, AND DENMARK

Position and Coast Line. *Belgium, the Netherlands, and Denmark* are each small but important nations bordering on the Atlantic. Their combined area is nearly as large as that of Kentucky. Owing to their several excellent harbors and the position of the



FIG. 414. Along a canal, Amsterdam. Much of the city's transportation is by water.

to which is controlled by the Netherlands, as the Scheldt flows through that country.

The Netherlands, on the other hand, has two excellent harbors, *Rotterdam* and *Amsterdam*, of which the former is the more important. *Amsterdam*, however, is connected with the Atlantic by a ship canal, so that its position on the *Zuider Zee* is to a certain extent made up for by this direct connection with the great ocean. (See Fig. 376.)

Denmark is made up of several large islands and a peninsula, so that it has but little land



FIG. 413. Antwerp, on the Scheldt River, the great distributing point of Belgium.

Netherlands at the mouth of the great Rhine waterway, which is an exceedingly valuable commercial route for Germany, they are important countries commercially.

Belgium has about forty miles of unbroken coast, with no harbor except the small one of *Ostend*, which is connected by steamship lines with *Dover*, England. Its chief port is the river port of *Antwerp* (see Fig. 413), access

boundary. (See Fig. 422.) It is not very important commercially because there is not enough land to furnish a great quantity of products for oceanic commerce.

Surface. These three countries are all low, and the coasts are largely sand dunes, which form good watering places, especially in Belgium. Almost all of the coastal portion of the Netherlands is below the level of the sea,

and the water is kept from advancing upon the land only by high dikes which are built as a protection against the waves. Thirty-eight per cent of this country would be overflowed but for the dikes. (See Fig. 415.) In northwestern Belgium there is a great region known as the *polders*, which has been reclaimed from the sea and is now used for pasturage.

In the Netherlands the gentle slopes are occasionally broken by glacial deposits which form the only hills in the region. Denmark is very flat and sandy and contains many marshes and lakes. In the peninsula of *Jutland* many of the lakes have become peat bogs.

Drainage.

The rivers of the Netherlands and Belgium rise farther inland and flow through these countries to the sea. In the

Netherlands the land is so low and flat and the divides are so inconspicuous that a vast network of canals has been built to connect the rivers. As a result the country abounds in waterways. The products of the farms are brought to market by means of the canals, and sold directly from the boats. (See Fig. 414.) In winter, when the canals are frozen, the people travel to market on skates. As the rivers are navigable, and as their valleys furnish natural highways into the interior, the Netherlands transships a large amount of goods from Germany to Atlantic ports.

Foreign Possessions. The foreign possessions of the Netherlands are very important,

because they lie in the tropics and furnish tropical products of great value to the people of northern Europe. They include *Java* and other islands in the East Indies, and *Dutch Guiana* in South America. Denmark owns three small islands in the West Indies and the large islands of *Greenland* and *Iceland*; the latter is valuable because of its fisheries. Belgium has the rich colony of *Congo* in Africa, and hence Belgium has important trade in goods from tropical central Africa.

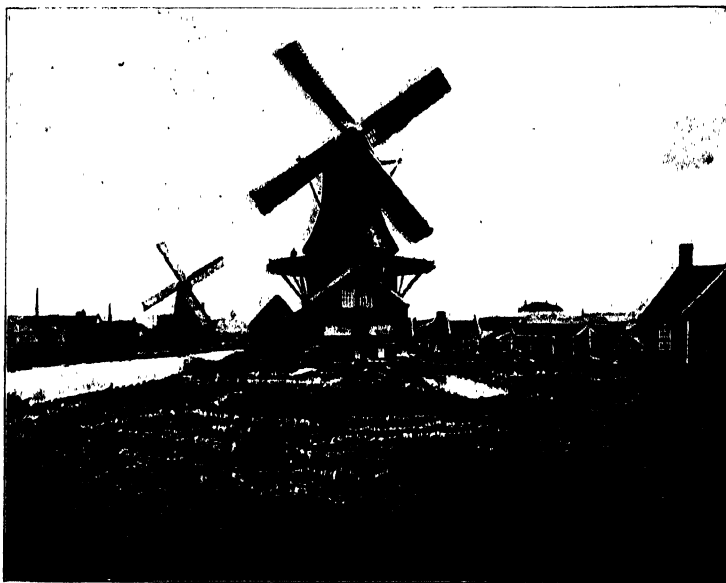


FIG. 415. In the dike-protected districts of the Netherlands.

Climate. Belgium, the Netherlands, and Denmark all lie in the belt of the westerly winds throughout the year. Hence the climate is even and damp, though increasing in intensity to the northward. Owing to the nearness of the sea, the winds bring a b u n d a n t

moisture to the region. As a result more than one-half of the days in Belgium are cloudy, and it rains in the Netherlands on an average of 204 days in the year.

The winds are not impeded by any irregularities of the surface and can therefore be depended upon to blow with sufficient intensity and regularity to turn windmills. This accounts for their general use.

In Denmark the climate is very much like that of eastern Scotland, but the winters are not sufficiently severe to close the harbors with ice for any length of time, though drifting ice is common for many months. The dampness here favors the formation of peat.

Products of the Soil.

- Owing to the fertile soil and moist, even climate Denmark and the Netherlands are primarily agricultural countries. Denmark, in its more rugged districts, is devoted to grazing, and has more cattle in proportion to its size than any other country of Europe.

The dairying is conducted very carefully, and Danish butter is so good that it is carried to all parts of the world. The chief crops of Denmark are oats and sugar beets.

In Belgium, cereals, flax, hemp, and sugar beets form the principal soil products. Sheep are raised in the drier southeastern portion. The country is also noted for its poultry and its horses.

In the Netherlands the best soil is near the sea and in the southern part of the country. Grazing and the raising of rye, oats, potatoes, and sugar beets are important. The Netherlands is also famous for butter and cheese.

Minerals. Few of the minerals are important. The Netherlands produces peat and pottery clay; the most important deposit of this clay is found about *Delft*, which gives its name to a certain kind of fine china. Coal and iron are found in Belgium in the hilly country; these deposits are a continuation of those found in France.

Fishing. Fishing in the Netherlands is important, especially that carried on in the North Sea



FIG. 416. Peddling milk in dog-carts in Belgium. The inspector is making a note.

and about Iceland. The principal fish is the herring, which is packed for export. Oysters are also found in abundance.

Manufacturing. In the Netherlands and in Denmark there is little coal and iron, and manufacturing is therefore relatively unimportant. Few goods are produced except for local use. Belgium, however, is a very important manufacturing country. Practically one million of its people are engaged in manufacturing, the preëminence of which is, of course, due to the mineral wealth of coal and iron.

Brussels (see Fig. 417), the largest town, is noted for its lace and carpets. *Liège*, another manufacturing city, is known especially for its iron and steel goods, firearms, machinery, and tools. *Woolen* and cotton manufacturing are also important. *Ghent* is especially noted for its linens.



FIG. 417. A street in Brussels.

Trade. The trade of Belgium, the Netherlands (see Fig. 419), and Denmark is large. Canals and railroads cover Belgium, and the Meuse is navigable to the German boundary; hence interior trade is easily carried on.

The trade of Belgium centers largely at *Antwerp* (see Fig. 420), which receives and again exports the larger part of the world's ivory. Belgium is a forwarding country for Germany and for goods from the United States destined for central

COMPARATIVE GEOGRAPHY OF THE CONTINENTS

Europe. The chief exports are iron and steel, coal, guns, flax, and glassware; the imports are cereals, wool, lumber, and petroleum. (See Fig. 376.) Grain and petroleum are imported from the United States, but the exports to our country are few and unimportant.

In the Netherlands the chief trade is in exports to its colonies and in goods brought from these colonies and again exported. These include coffee, spices, gums, indigo, dyewoods, diamonds, leaf tobacco, and other goods of a similar nature. Butter, meat, and cheese are

and machinery are leading imports; butter, eggs, and meat the exports of importance.

People. The people of Belgium (see Fig. 416), the Netherlands, and Denmark are all very interesting because of their general thrift and industry, as well as for their customs.

The Danes have always been successful as mariners and explorers. They have a high standard of education. The greater part of the population are rural people, living simple lives, devoted to their homes and country.

The people of the Netherlands are of many

stocks, but they are united by a common written language, called *Dutch*, which is the common spoken language among the cultured classes. In many of the rural districts dialects which have been inherited for generations are spoken. The people as a rule dress in full, loose clothes, and wear wooden shoes; this may be considered the national costume. The Dutch have been important colonizers; they



FIG. 418 Copenhagen, the great distributing center of Denmark.

sent to England and Germany; cotton goods are sent to the colonies. From the United States the Netherlands secures cereals, tobacco, and meat products, which make about one-tenth of the imports of the country.

In Denmark, *Copenhagen* is the great distributing port for the Baltic countries

(see Fig. 418), and the larger part of its trade is with them. Coal, textiles, food products,

were among the first to establish their settlements in our own country. Many of the local names about New York City and in the Hudson River Valley are witnesses to the former occupation by the Dutch.

The Belgians are more advanced in the arts and sciences than either the

Danes or the Dutch. They show the influence of their neighbors, however, in the persistence

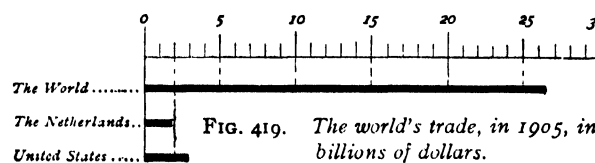




FIG. 420. Antwerp, the great ivory market of the world.

of two national languages, *French* in the southern provinces, and *Flemish*, which is closely akin to Dutch, in the provinces bordering the Netherlands.

Scenery. The color conditions due to the climate and the vegetation make these countries, and especially the Netherlands, a favorite resort for artists. The quaint rural people with their characteristic costumes, their large flowing clothes and wooden shoes, are also a great attraction.

Belgium, being a buffer state between several great nations, is of much interest historically. It has been the scene of many great battles, some of which, like that of Waterloo, where Napoleon was defeated in 1815, are famous the world over.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What does a study of the map tell you of the disadvantages to commerce of the coast line of Belgium? (2) What is its chief ocean port, and what are its principal advantages and disadvantages? (3) How has the inland city of Amsterdam been made an ocean port? (4) Examine the position of Belgium between France and England on one side and central Europe on the other. What natural advantages has it for doing a transit trade? (5) Why has it been a great battlefield in modern times?

(6) What disadvantages does Belgium suffer with regard to her two rivers? (7) Make a chart of the products of Belgium, the Netherlands, and Denmark according to the following directions: In one column write the names of the products; in another the countries where they are found; in a third some facts you have

learned about the importance of these products; in a fourth, the cities engaged in manufacturing or exporting these products.

(8) Compare Copenhagen and Gibraltar in position; in importance. (9) Why is the Baltic Sea not so important as the Mediterranean?

LVI. NORWAY AND SWEDEN

Size and Extent. The peninsula of Scandinavia includes the two countries, *Norway* and *Sweden*. Norway is a little larger than New Mexico, and Sweden is somewhat larger than California.

The peninsula extends far beyond the Arctic Circle and over more degrees of latitude than any other division of Europe except Russia. It is swept by the westerly winds, which bring to it the warmth and the moisture they have taken up in passing over the North Atlantic Drift. For this reason it has a mild, damp climate on the western side, where the average temperature is much higher than is usually found in a country so far from the equator. (See Fig. 74.)

Coast Line. The coast line of Norway is very irregular; it abounds in magnificent fiords, affording fine harbors far famed for their scenery. (See Figs. 55 and 421.) Off the coast are a great number of islands, forming a kind of barrier which protects coasting vessels in their voyages along the inside channel. These islands are surrounded by



FIG. 421. A Norwegian fiord.

shoals which abound in fish. Because of these favoring conditions the inhabitants of Norway have long been a seafaring people. The eastern coast contains many harbors, but the climate here is more severe, and many of the harbors are ice-locked for several months in the year, some of them even for six months.

Surface and Drainage.

Norway occupies the short, steep, western slope of the Kjölen Mountains, and with the exception of Spain it is the most distinctly mountainous country in Europe. Sweden lies to the east, and is for the most part a level plain which has been heavily glaciated and is dotted with numerous lakes. The larger lakes are connected with each other and with the sea by canals, so that transportation is made easy.

More than one-half of Sweden and one-fourth of Norway is covered by forests. The highest mountains in the north and northwest of Norway abound in great glaciers, which, with the fiords and waterfalls, give the country much strikingly beautiful scenery. (See Fig. 423.)

Climate. There is a great difference between the climate of Norway and Sweden, because Sweden is shut off from the mild westerly winds of the Atlantic by the north and south highland. The *Lofoten Islands* have an average winter temperature no lower than that of New York City, while the average temperature in eastern Sweden in winter is twenty degrees colder. The higher valleys of Norway have a severe and uncomfortable

climate, and in consequence are little occupied, but the climate of the lower valleys and the seacoast is tempered by the ocean breezes.

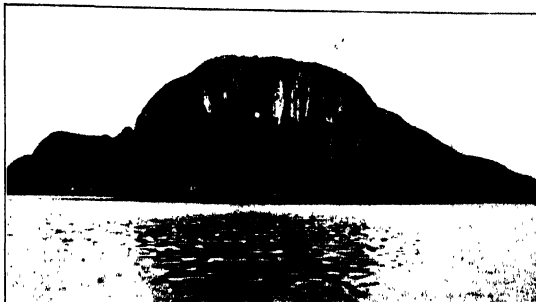


FIG. 423. A mountain on the coast of Norway, which has been much worn away by the waves.

The warm winds of the Atlantic give up much of their moisture on the western coast, where, in places, the rainfall is as great as seventy-nine inches a year; it decreases to the east, in some places amounting to only thirteen inches. There is

a great abundance of snow in Sweden, and hence the use of a peculiar kind of snowshoes known as *skis* is very common. Sweden has a summer temperature, however, that is favorable for hardy grains. (See Figs. 82 and 84.)

Products of the Soil. Except in eastern Sweden, the amount of land in the peninsula suitable for farming is very limited, and as a result only a small portion of the people are engaged in agriculture. The vast forests make Norway and Sweden the most important timber-producing countries in Europe. On the higher slopes, which are not timbered, the abundance of moisture brings forth an excellent supply of grass, which furnishes food for large numbers of cattle and sheep.



FIG. 424. Norwegian peasant women.

Mining. In both Norway and Sweden mining products are important, but owing to the great purity of Swedish iron, mining is better developed in that country. Copper, silver, and zinc are also obtained in Sweden, but there is very little coal. Silver, gold, and copper are mined in Norway.

Fishing. Owing to the poor agricultural opportunities in Norway, the people naturally

turned to the sea for their food. Therefore the fishing industry, which is favored by the splendid harbors and the proximity of the Atlantic fishing grounds, is the leading industry in Norway. The principal center is about the Lofoten Islands, where sometimes more than 40,000 men are engaged. Cod, herring, anchovies, mackerel, and salmon are the most important fish.

Manufacturing. Owing largely to the abundance of water power furnished by the short streams from the mountains, manufacturing is increasing rapidly. Timber products, including wood pulp and matches, are the chief manufactures. Swedish matches are exported to all parts of the world. The fishing industry makes fish curing and shipbuilding noteworthy occupations in Norway. The manufacture of iron and steel and of woollens and cotton goods is increasing.

Trade. Sweden is the largest lumber and timber exporting country in the world, and these products form about one-half of the total exports. They are sent principally to the other countries of Europe where timber is scarce. Owing to the excellent harbor facilities of Norway, this country has long been important for its oceanic commerce. In Sweden the numerous railroads and canals make transportation of goods from the interior cheap and easy. The chief imports are breadstuffs and woollen manufactures. The trade of the countries with the United States is unimportant. (See Fig. 426.)

Stockholm, built on a number of islands connected by bridges, is the chief importing city (see Fig. 425), but is excelled in exports by *Gothenburg*. Gothenburg, from its position near the North Sea, has an active trade with the countries of continental Europe.

Other cities of commercial importance are *Christiania*, built at the end of a long and fine harbor; *Bergen* (see Fig. 427), the center of the fish trade, and *Trondhjem*, the third town in size. All the large towns of both

countries are near thesea, and in Norway the larger number of people live close to the shore.

People. The people of Norway and Sweden were for very nearly a century united under one government. In October, 1905, however,

Norway withdrew from the union and formed a separate kingdom with a king at the head of the government.

The people are exceedingly industrious, and in spite of the many adverse conditions they gain a livelihood by their simple rural occupations. (See Fig. 424.) The educated men, however, have always been leaders in science and literature, and some of the Norse legends and traditions of past ages as recorded by the

early writers rank among the great and enduring masterpieces in literature.

Scenery. Norway is visited each summer by large numbers of people who are attracted by its magnificent scenery. There are many wonderful glaciers and waterfalls, and the fiords are of great interest and beauty.

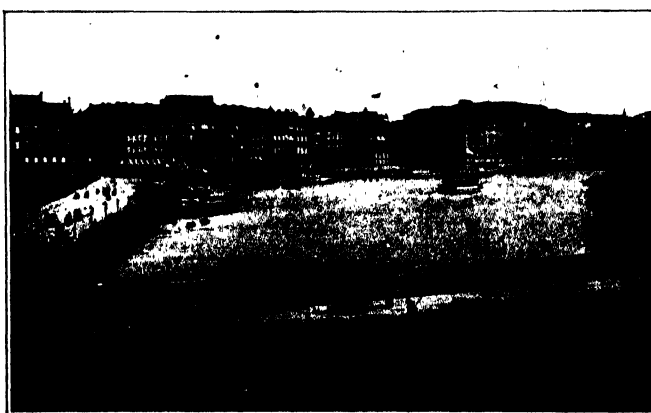


FIG. 425. The city of Stockholm, Sweden.

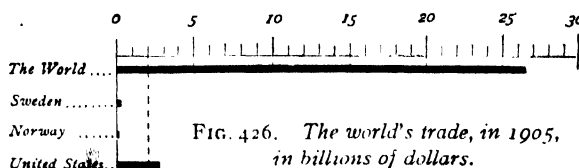


FIG. 426. The world's trade, in 1905, in billions of dollars.

The more northern towns like *Hammerfest* and *Tromsø* are much visited by people who want to see the *midnight sun*. (See Fig. 428.) These towns are so far north that during a part of the summer the sun can be seen both night and day. Of course in winter there is an equal length of time when the sun does not rise at all.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Draw a sketch map of Norway and Sweden. Draw the parallels of 55 and 70 degrees north latitude. Through how many degrees do these countries extend? (2) What difference in temperature between the south and north might you expect? Find out from the temperature map of the world whether this difference exists. Reason for this? (3) What portion of North America has a similar range of temperature? For what reason? (4) What is the difference in temperature between the western and eastern coasts? In rainfall? (5) What causes this difference? (6) Color the map drawn in Exercise 1 in shades to show the rainfall of Norway and Sweden. (7) Draw the January isotherm of 30° with one color, the July isotherm of 60° with another. What can you say of the western slope of Norway as compared with the eastern slope of Sweden? (8) What is the character of the rivers of Norway? (9) How has the character of the coast affected the occupations of her people? Illustrate this.

(11) Draw a diagram which will explain the fact of the *midnight sun*. (12) Tell how life in Sweden in winter and summer would be different from your own.

(13) Give one reason why so many matches are made in Sweden. (14) Why should cheese

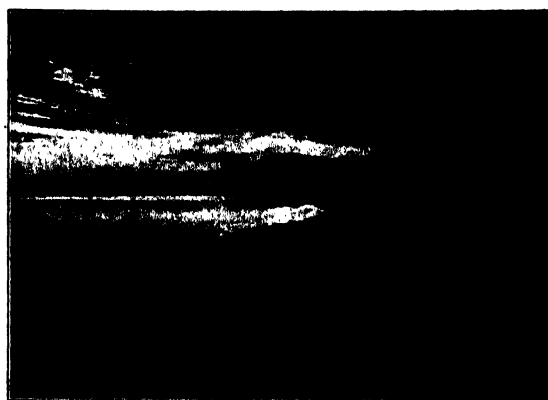


FIG. 428. *The midnight sun at Hammerfest.*

be an important food of the people? (15) Name three countries of Europe which have an extensive fishing trade. (16) What are the climatic and surface conditions which favor the growth of forests? (17) Of what use are the Swedish rivers in the lumbering industry?

(18) Compare the locations of Stockholm and Venice. (19) Consult the temperature map and find out if the harbor of Stockholm would be closed by ice during the winter. (20) On the map used above locate the chief towns.

LVII. RUSSIA

Size. Russia is the largest country of Europe. It occupies more than one-half the continent and is about two-thirds the size of the United States, not including Alaska and the other detached dependencies. It extends far beyond the Arctic Circle, and is really the western part of the great plain which occupies Siberia. The Russian Empire, which includes *Siberia*, *Turkistan*, and *Caucasia*, occupies one-sixth of the land surface of the globe.

Coast Line and Boundaries. Although Russia is bordered by the ocean or large seas in the north, west, and south, it has few good harbors for the reason that a large part of its coast is ice-bound during several months of the year. As Germany controls the entrance to the Baltic, and Turkey that to the Black Sea, these seas are of little commercial value to Russia. Russia has now



FIG. 427. *Bergen, the second city of Norway, and the center of the fishing industry.*

secured an outlet to the Pacific Ocean at Vladivostok in Asia, on the sea of Japan, at the end of the long Trans-Siberian Railroad.

Russia is bordered on the northeast by the Ural Mountains, which attain mountain dignity only in places. At the point where the great Trans-Siberian Railroad, which connects St. Petersburg and Vladivostok, crosses the Urals, no one would know from the outlook that a mountain range existed.

Surface. The only elevation of any note in the great plain of Russia is the Valdai Plateau, which rises to a height of 1,100 feet and acts as the center from which the drainage of the region radiates. Many long rivers flow down the gentle slopes toward the edge of the country, and are therefore of great commercial importance when not ice-bound. (See Fig. 369.) The largest river, the *Volga*, is frozen for three months in the year. (See Fig. 429.) Many lakes dot the surface of northwestern Russia, especially in Finland. *Lake Ladoga*, nearly as large as Lake Ontario, is the largest lake of Europe.

In southeastern Russia there is a large area which is below sea-level. This region borders the Caspian Sea, whose surface is eighty-six feet below the Mediterranean. Many of the lakes of this section therefore have no outlet and consequently are salt or brackish.

Climate. Russia lies in the eastern section of Europe, far from the tempering influence of any ocean, and is therefore characterized by extremely cold winters and short, hot summers.

The growing season is short and follows quickly after a late spring. Approximately one-half the area has a rainfall of less than twenty inches a year, but as this comes largely during the growing season, agriculture can be carried on successfully in the central and southern portions.

Products of the Soil. In the north is the *tundra* area, mainly of use for pasturing reindeer. Here the *Lapps* (see Fig. 430) and *Samoyedes* live a nomadic life, depending largely upon the chase for their support.

Extending south as far as a line running southeast from St. Petersburg is the great forest region, composed largely of evergreen trees from which resin and timber are secured. This is also the great fur-producing area of the country.

Central Russia is an agricultural and industrial region, and the richest part of the country. This agricultural area includes the famous *black earth* region, an area of land of unsurpassed fertility which extends south to the parallel of 50 degrees north latitude. The rich, dark soil of this treeless region is well adapted to the



FIG. 429. Looking down the broad valley of the river Volga.



FIG. 430. A Lapland camp.

growth of cereals, especially wheat and barley (see Figs. 431 and 432), which require abundant sunshine. Yet, owing to the general ignorance of the people and to the use of poor machinery, agriculture does not thrive as it should. However, the use of modern agricultural tools imported from the United States is increasing and agriculture is improving.

South and southeast are the arid *steppes*, great plains covered with grass, but too dry for agriculture. Here is a nomadic people who raise great numbers of cattle, horses, and camels.

Russia competes with the United States in production of wheat (see Fig. 431), raises more flax and hemp than any other country of the world, and produces nearly one-half of the oats grown in Europe. (See Fig. 433.) It excels all European countries in production of barley, surpasses all countries in rye (see Figs. 432 and 434), and ranks fourth in sugar. The rye is used largely at home, as the people live chiefly upon black bread.

Russia leads the continent in cattle and sheep, raises one-half the horses of Europe, and is second to Germany in hog raising.

Mineral Products. Russia has an abundance of coal and iron, worked chiefly in southern Russia and Poland, and large deposits of gold. The most valuable mineral product is platinum, which comes from the eastern slope of the Urals. In fact, this region produces the larger part of all the platinum used in the world.

Manufacturing. Russia at the present time is producing nearly enough manufactured products for its own use. But owing to the backward condition of the country and to the fact that the mineral deposits are not so well developed as in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany, manufacturing has developed slowly. Most of the manufacturing is done in small shops or in the

homes of the people. The chief products are textiles, leather goods, wood and metal goods, and pottery. Cotton manufacturing is especially important. Russia is surpassed only by the United States and the United Kingdom in the manufacturing of cotton. The raw material is largely imported from the United States.

Moscow, with coal and timber near at hand, leads in manufactures and is the chief railroad center. Its principal industries are wool and silk

weaving. (See Fig. 435.) *Warsaw* on the Vistula has steam navigation on that river and is the second inland city in industry and trade. Textiles are produced at *St. Petersburg* and in *Poland*. *Odessa* has important flour mills, sugar refineries, and breweries. (See Fig. 437.)

Travel. There are few railroads in Russia, and the larger portion of the trade of the country is carried on by water. In winter when the rivers and canals are frozen most of the transportation is by means of sledges. The building of the Trans-Siberian Railroad has been of great importance to Russia, for

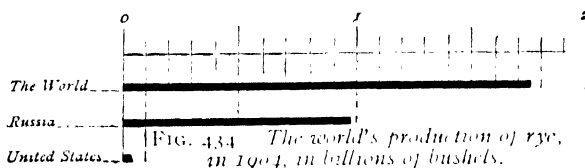
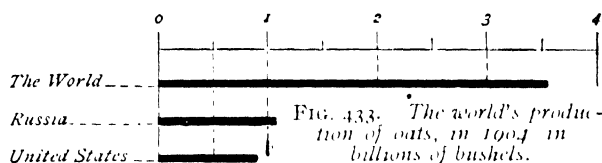
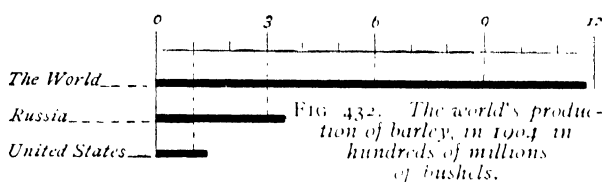
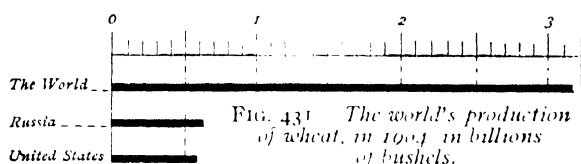




FIG. 435. Moscow, showing the Kremlin on the left.

along its route agriculture and manufacturing have been stimulated and will doubtless grow in value yearly. It is now possible to go from St. Petersburg, the capital of the empire (see Fig. 436), to the Pacific coast in a little over two weeks with comfort and ease. The road is, however, poorly built and the trains cannot attain the speed that is common in transcontinental traveling in North America.

Commerce. The chief exports of Russia are cereals and flour, timber, eggs, dairy products, and flax. Russia sends large quantities of wheat to the United Kingdom, and imports machinery from that country and Germany. To the United States are sent leather, flax, and flax-seed. (See Fig. 439.)

The Black Sea ports, of which *Odessa* and *Sebastopol* are the most important (see Figs. 437 and 438), are mainly devoted to the shipment of agricultural products sent to Asia and southern Europe. *St. Petersburg*, owing to its position, is the greatest trade center in the north; it exports grain and lumber. *Riga* exports rye, oats, and lumber.

The trade of *Astrakhan* is chiefly in sturgeon and other fish secured from the Volga.

Fairs. Before the development of canals and railways in recent years, the largest part of the trade of Russia was carried on at great annual fairs which were held at *Nizhniy-Novgorod* and *Kharkov*. Although these fairs have declined somewhat in importance, they are still the scenes of active trading in goods from all parts of the world. People attend by thousands from all parts of the empire and many million dollars' worth of trade results each year.

People. The people of Russia differ in many ways from those of any other nation of Europe. They belong for the most part to

a somewhat different branch of the white race, though they include many Swedes, Finns, and Jews among their numbers.

Owing to the poor development of education and to the form of government, the Russians as a whole are not

progressive. The Czar is the head of the government and allows the people but little voice in the government. The people are also

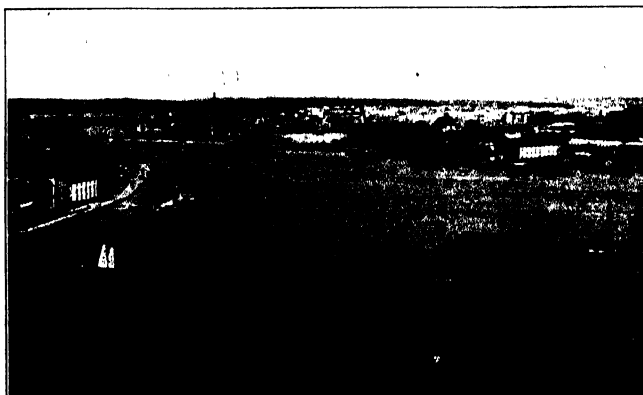


FIG. 436. St. Petersburg, the capital of Russia.

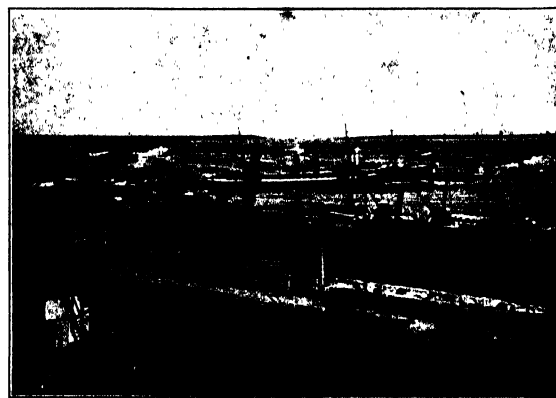


FIG. 437. The port of Odessa.

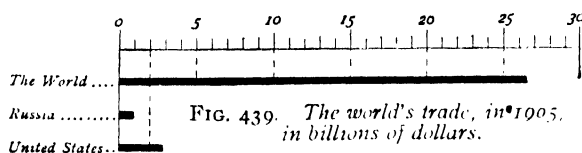
very heavily taxed for the maintenance of the government and the large standing army, and therefore have little accumulated wealth.

Throughout a large part of Russia the people own their lands in groups, each member of a group having a certain amount of field and pasture land, so that he can gain a livelihood for his family. He cannot give up the land and it is therefore difficult for him to change his occupation or his place of abode.

In fact the Government does all it can to keep the people from becoming in any way independent. This attitude of the leaders in Russia is altogether different from that of the leaders in the great nations like the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany, and is the chief reason for the lack of the progress of the people of the nation as a whole.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Make a list of the Russian ports that are icebound during a part of the year. (2) Why did Russia build the Trans-Siberian Railroad? (3) What towns does this railroad connect?



- (4) Draw a diagram showing how the Valdai Plateau is the center from which the rivers of Russia flow. (5) Draw a portion of the coast at the mouth of each river of Russia and locate

the parallel which passes through Astrakhan and Archangel. (6) Why should the Don be free from ice when the Volga is blocked for three months of the year? (7) Account for the number of lakes in Finland and compare with a portion of the United States for similarity of surface and cause. (8) Why are so many lakes in the south of Russia brackish? (9) What region in the United States has brackish lakes for a similar reason?



FIG. 438. Sebastopol, one of Russia's ports on the Black Sea.

- (10) On an outline map color the different vegetation regions of Russia. (11) On this map write the average rainfall of these regions and their January and July temperatures. (12) Write the chief products of the *black earth* and the *steppe* regions and underline those products which are raised in great quantities.

- (13) How does Russia rank in the production of wheat? (14) Through what port does the wheat of Russia pass to the East?

- (15) What are the disadvantages of the location of St. Petersburg as a capital? (16) Draw the main railroads diverging from Moscow. (17) Trace the route of the Siberian Railroad in Russia and name the towns on the road. (18) Tell how you would go from Berlin to Baku; from Moscow to Paris. (19) Why is Helsingfors a good place for an astronomical observatory? (20) Explain the difference between the January temperatures of Archangel and Reikjavik.

LVIII. THE GERMAN EMPIRE

Size and Boundaries. The German Empire, or Germany, is the most central country of Europe. It is as large as the New England States, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Besides the home country the empire also includes large possessions in Africa, *German New Guinea*, and certain small islands in the Pacific. (See Fig. 382.)

Only one-third of the boundary line of Germany is seacoast. This necessitates the maintenance of a large army for defensive purposes. The northern frontier is on a lowland difficult of defense but favorable for trade. The rest of the land boundary is in mountainous regions which are easily defended.

Germany may be divided into North and South Germany. The former controls the maritime trade and the latter the commerce with the neighboring countries, which is carried on along the Danube and over the Alps. The coast is largely bordered by shallow waters and therefore does not afford so many harbors as we should expect from its length and indentations. The Baltic Sea has many lagoons known as *Haffe* which are used as harbors.

Hamburg, the greatest seaport on the continent of Europe and the third port in importance in the world (see Fig. 440), owes its supremacy to its location on the most south-

easterly inlet on the North Sea, and on the lower Elbe, which, next to the Rhine, is the chief waterway of Germany. *Bremen*, which is nearest the Atlantic, is a close rival, but is

less favorably situated because the Weser River offers less extensive water connections with the interior.

Surface. North Germany is a part of the great lowland of northern Europe, while the southern part is a highland culminating in the Alps. The northern plain, which is nowhere

over 600 feet in height, is covered with sands and clays brought by the great ice sheet, and abounds in small glacial lakes.

The southern plateau is from 1,000 to 2,000 feet in altitude. (See Fig. 451.) In the extreme south where it joins the Alps it becomes higher, but at no point is it 10,000 feet above the sea level. The higher lands of Germany include a portion of the Danube basin, a rolling surface with an elevation of about 1,600 feet which is covered with glacial deposits.

Drainage. The rivers of Germany all flow to the north except the *Danube*, which is the most important commercial river of eastern Europe. The chief rivers of North Germany are the *Elbe* and the *Rhine* (See Fig. 442.)

The Rhine is navigable to Mannheim and is connected by canals with the Rhone, the Seine, and the Danube. Canals also connect Berlin with the Elbe, and the Elbe with Kiel. The Kiel canal is of great importance to shipping because it has shortened by many



FIG. 440. On the water front at Hamburg.



FIG. 441. Looking down the Upper Rhine Valley.



FIG. 412

miles the trade routes between the Baltic ports and the Atlantic Ocean. Other canals follow the valleys of the rivers which are too small for navigation. (See Fig. 376.)

Climate. Germany lies entirely within the westerly wind area. Therefore the western portion has a climate which is somewhat tempered by the ocean. Toward the east the winter climate becomes colder because the continental conditions there more than counteract the influence of the ocean. The tem-

perature of southern Germany is no higher on the average than it is in northern Germany, because the advantage of a more southern position is compensated for by the increase in altitude. The low-lying protected plains of the Rhine, Moselle, and Main have hot summers and mild winters.

The westerly winds give up their moisture as they blow over the land, so that the rainfall decreases from about forty inches in the western part of Germany to about twenty inches in the east. The headwaters of the north-flowing rivers of the east, like the Vistula, thaw out in the spring before the lower regions are free from ice, and great and damaging floods often result.

Products of the Soil. About one-half of the area of Germany is cultivated, one-fourth

is in forest, and the rest is mostly used as pasturage. (See Figs. 119 and 443.) As a result the agricultural products are very important.

Sugar beets, raised largely throughout central Germany, are the chief crop, and Ger-

many produces about one-third of all the beet sugar of the world. (See Figs. 444 and 576.)

In the northern plain are vast fields of potatoes, in which crop Germany also leads the world. (See Fig. 445.) The infertile soil and the absence of opportunity for manufactur-

ing make this a thinly populated region except in the Oder and the Vistula valleys. Where the soil is sufficiently fertile, cereals are grown. Rye is raised extensively, but is mostly used at home in the making of black bread.

The best soil and the most favorable cli-

mate for agriculture are found along the Rhine, where grapes and tobacco are the chief crops. Grapes are also raised in certain favored points in the valley of the Oder, the most northerly limit of vine culture in the world. The other noteworthy crop of Germany is hops, which are raised more especially in the higher areas of the southeast. The

larger part of this crop is used in the extensive breweries of Munich.

In the hilly districts of central Germany are forests of beech, fir, spruce, pine, and

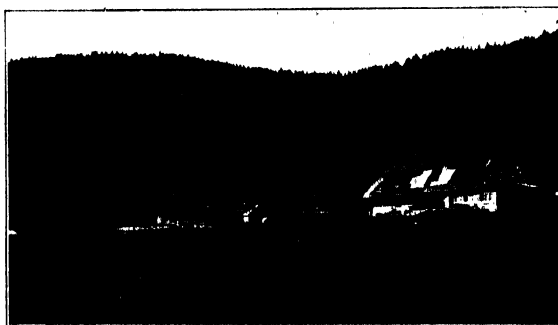


FIG. 443. Farms and pastures in the forest region of Germany.

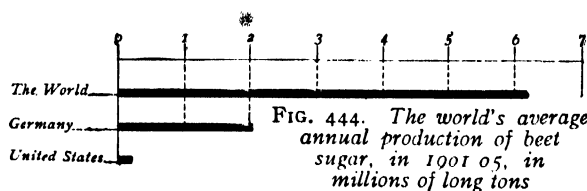


FIG. 444. The world's average annual production of beet sugar, in 1901-05, in millions of long tons

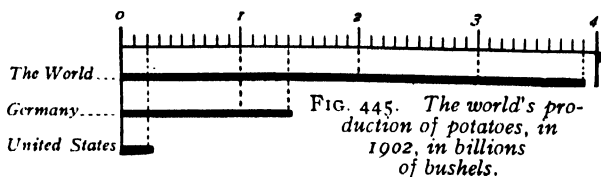


FIG. 445. The world's production of potatoes, in 1902, in billions of bushels.

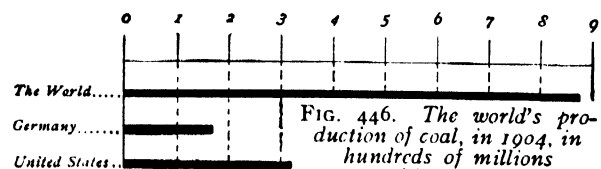


FIG. 446. The world's production of coal, in 1904, in hundreds of millions of long tons.

oak, from which are secured wood for the famous toy factories of Nuremberg.

Stock Raising. Germany is second to Russia among the European countries in the raising of cattle. The breeding of horses and cattle is carried on extensively in the damper plains of the north, while sheep are raised in the drier eastern section. Hogs are kept in large numbers on the farms in the sugar-beet area, where they live on the refuse from the sugar factories. Large numbers are also raised in the hilly district of central Germany, where they feed on the nuts in the forests.

Mining. Germany is rich in coal (see Figs. 446 and 590) and iron and is second to the United Kingdom among European countries in the output of these minerals. It also has extensive mines of silver, copper, and salt, and yields the larger part of the world's zinc. Copper is found in the Erzgebirge and the mountains of the central part. Germany furnishes the best lithographic stone used in engraving.

The particular advantage of Germany in minerals is that the coal and the iron are found near together and close to navigation, especially in the valleys of the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Oder. The iron is worked only where it is near coal, and on these two depends Germany's great advance in manufacturing.

Manufacturing. For the reasons given above Germany is distinctly a manufacturing

country. It ranks next after the United States and the United Kingdom in the value of its products. Iron (see Figs. 447 and 591) and steel manufacturing are the chief forms, especially about *Essen* and *Dortmund* in the region known as the valley of the Ruhr.

The development of the steel industry is one of the chief reasons for the movement of the population of Germany from the country regions to the cities. *Essen*, the chief steel-making city, has the

largest steel mills in the world. All the larger towns in the Ruhr Valley, however, are famous for their steel products, especially for cutlery, machinery, needles, and firearms.

Germany, with its irregular coast line, good harbors, and excellent supply of iron and steel, could not fail to become a great

shipbuilding country. It is surpassed only by the United Kingdom. The largest part of this industry is carried on at the great ports of *Stettin*, *Hamburg*, *Danzig*, and *Kiel*.

Cotton manufacturing is extensive in many parts of Germany, especially at *Cologne*, *Elberfeld*, and

Chemnitz. Woolen manufactures are well developed in the eastern portion near the supply of wool. The largest part of the cotton used in manufacturing is brought from the United States and distributed to the several cities by boats up the Rhine.

Commerce. Germany has a very large amount of internal as well as of foreign

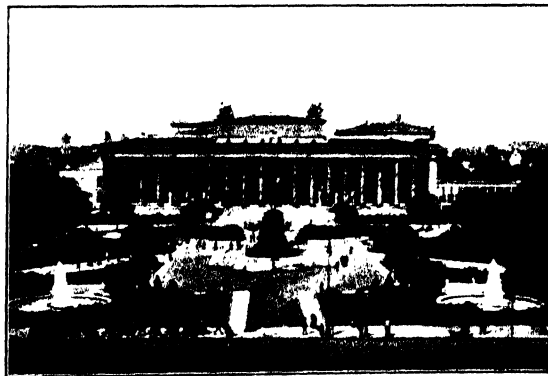
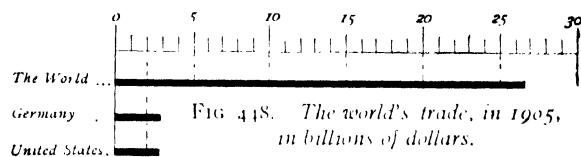
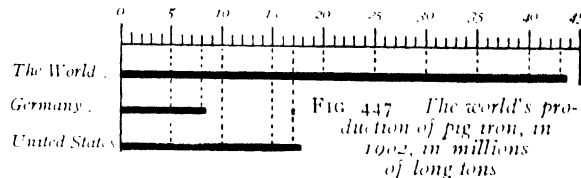


FIG. 449. The museum and the public square of Berlin.



FIG. 450. A street scene in Munich.

commerce. (See Fig. 448.) It is the second of the countries of Europe in its commerce and carries on about one-eighth of the world's trade. The larger portion of its trade is with the United Kingdom, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and the United States. The United States furnishes over 12 per cent of its imports and receives about 10 per cent of its exports. The fine system of canals which has already been mentioned and the splendid network of railroads make internal commerce easy. Germany is second only to the United States in the number of miles of railroad. Its chief imports are cereals, wool, cotton, and metals; its exports include sugar, cotton and woolen manufactures, coal, iron goods, and machinery. Its cotton goods are sent to the warmer regions of Central and South America and its woolen goods to the colder part of South America.

Centers of Interior Trade. *Berlin* is the capital and the chief railroad and manufacturing center of Germany. Owing to its position on the northern plain and its ready water connections with the coast towns, it has become the chief interior city in trade. It is famous for its fine art galleries, its great university, and its beautiful streets. (See Fig. 449.) *Munich* (see Fig. 450), noted for its breweries, largely controls the commerce between North Germany and

the Adriatic Sea. *Breslau* commands the trade with Austria-Hungary and southeastern Europe. *Leipzig* leads in printing books, is the seat of a great university and the world's chief fur market. *Cologne*, from its position between France and Germany, is a great railway center for trade with western Europe. It is also noted for its beautiful cathedral. *Danzig* exports the timber and wheat brought to it down the Vistula. *Dresden* exports quantities of metal goods, and *Magdeburg*, *Hanover*, and *Brunswick* have extensive sugar refineries and a large sugar trade. *Strassburg*, an active trade center, is noteworthy also as an important stronghold.

People. The agricultural people of Germany have acquired habits of thrift and perseverance because they have been compelled for generations to secure their living from a soil that is nowhere extremely fertile. In spite of such difficulties Germany has progressed very rapidly within the last three decades. The people have increased greatly in numbers, have improved their machinery and methods of agriculture, and have taken an important position in the commercial and industrial world. This progress is undoubtedly due in large part to the excellent system of compulsory education, and to the fact that many weak and independent states have been consolidated into a great empire. Science and learning have been fostered, improved machinery has been invented, and the people as a whole have become more highly educated than those of any other country.

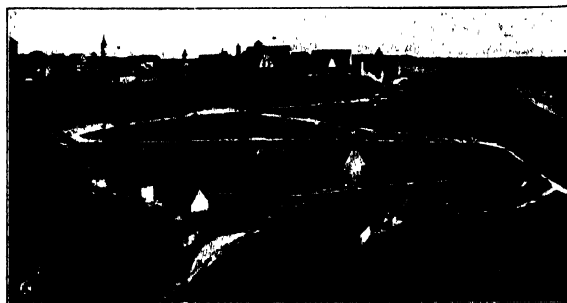


FIG. 451. A German town built on a small plateau.

The Germans are naturally home-loving and quiet, painstaking and thorough; they are less impetuous than the French. These qualities the Germans have carried with them when they have emigrated to new countries, as they have in large numbers to the United States.

Scenery. Germany is one of the most interesting countries of Europe. Its great advance in industries, its very old and renowned educational institutions, and its many historic cities attract many visitors to it each year, not only from other countries of Europe, but also from the United States.

The valley of the Rhine is one of the most famous in the world for its beauty. The broad, winding river deeply set in its narrow, steep-sided valley, and with its slopes largely covered by vineyards and fields, makes a very picturesque and interesting route of travel. The many cities of historic interest along its banks also make this a favorite route for entering Germany. (See Figs. 441 and 452.)

Questions and Exercises

(1) On the margin of an outline map of Central Europe write the name of a place in North America in the approximate latitude of Munich; of Hamburg. (2) Compare the latitude of Germany with that of the United States. (3) Does the sun set earlier at Berlin or at Quebec?

(4) Make a list of the countries which border Germany and mark with a star those which are separated by mountains. (5) On the map used in Exercise 1 write the names of these countries and the bordering mountain ranges. (6) Describe the coast which borders on the North Sea; on the Baltic Sea. (7) Where would you expect to find sand dunes? Dikes? Marshes? (8) Consult the temperature maps and tell whether the Baltic ports are free from ice during the winter. (9) Why is Hamburg a more important port than Bremen? (10) What canal,

which has been recently constructed, has promoted the trade of the ports along the coast of the Baltic Sea? What effect may the opening of this canal have on the commerce of Hamburg?

(11) Fill out the following chart:

RIVERS OF GERMANY			
Names	Source (Country)	Mouth (Country)	Chief Towns

(12) On your outline map draw the rivers of Germany. (13) What large tributaries has the Rhine from the east? (14) What towns are situated at the junction of these rivers with the Rhine? (15) Find out what Rheinstein means. Why were castles built in such places? (16) Con-

sult a map of Europe and tell about the importance of the Rhine as a great avenue of traffic for the continent.

(17) Make a list of the chief products of Germany; opposite each write the locality or region in which it is found, and mark with a star those products in which Germany stands foremost.

(18) On an outline map of Europe color the chief mineral regions of

Germany and locate the manufacturing towns. (19) What towns have manufactures similar to those of Birmingham and Manchester? (20) What are some of the advantages of position by which Hamburg has attained the rank of one of the large ports of the world? (21) What important railroads cross at Berlin? (22) Trace the railroad between Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, and name the large towns along its route. (23) What main roads converge at Munich? (24) Trace the railroad between Paris, Munich, and Vienna, and name the towns on this road. (25) What are the advantages of the position of Cologne? (26) What roads converge there? (27) Locate and give reasons for commercial growth of Mannheim, Breslau, Magdeburg, Dresden, and Leipzig. (Consult commercial and physical maps.) (28) Compare the industries of Germany and the United Kingdom; those of Germany and the United States. (29) What part of the United States has industries similar to those of the Ruhr Valley?



FIG. 452 The famous Rheinstein Castle on the Rhine.

LIX. SWITZERLAND

Surface and Drainage. Switzerland is a small republic about twice the size of Massachusetts and lying in the very heart of Europe. It has no seacoast and more than one-half of it is occupied by mountains.

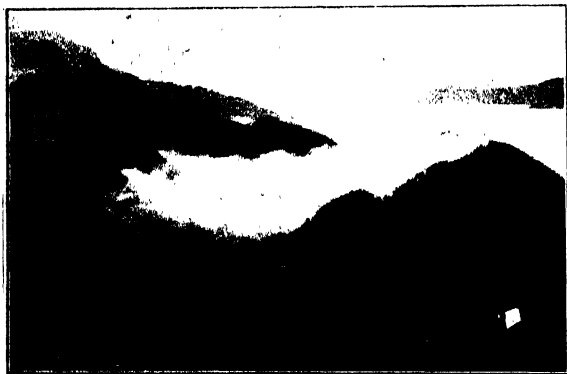


FIG. 453. *Lake Geneva.*

Between the Alps lying on the south and east and the Jura on the northwest there is a high valley, averaging about 1,300 feet in altitude, which forms the agricultural section of the country. (See Fig. 455.)

The rivers, because of the distribution of the mountains, flow outward in every direction. They are mostly too swift for navigation, but are largely used for floating timber. The several large and beautiful lakes, however, are important for internal commerce.

Climate. Owing to the altitude of Switzerland and to its position on the continent, it has a cool climate. Its rainfall is about as great as that of the eastern United States. Above the height of 8,500 feet there is eternal snow, so that the higher altitudes abound in glaciers and snow fields.

The rigorous winter climate is often modified by warm winds which blow over the mountains from the south. When there is a storm area over Germany the air is drawn in from all sides. That which comes from southern Europe loses a large part of its moisture as it rises to cross the Alps. Descending on the north side of the mountains and growing

warmer as it descends, it becomes more and more able to take in moisture; it melts the snow and brings unusual warmth to Switzerland.

Products of the Soil. Agriculture is an important industry in Switzerland although the amount of land that can be devoted to that industry is small. The only agricultural product of value in trade is wine, which is made from grapes raised on the sunny slopes of the Jura and the Alps. (See Fig. 454.)

Grazing is very important; nearly three-fourths of the land not covered by forests, ice, or snow is devoted to this industry. (See Fig. 376.) The cattle and the goats are driven to the higher regions in summer and to the lowlands in winter. From the products of the herds cheese and condensed milk are made. The mountain villages also supply the towns in the plains with butter and cream.

Minerals. There is not much iron or coal to be found in Switzerland; salt and building stones are the chief rock products.

Manufacturing. In spite of the lack of fuel and iron, Switzerland is preëminently a manufacturing country. One-third of the people are engaged in this industry, particularly on the plateau and in the Jura. Owing to the position of Switzerland in the heart of the continent, it can easily trade with all its neighbors, and the magnificent power furnished by its perennial and swift streams



FIG. 454. *A vineyard on the slopes in Switzerland.*

affords excellent facilities for carrying on manufacturing. The water power here, as in Italy, is being utilized more and more in developing electricity for manufacturing. Watches and clocks are the leading manufactures. Swiss watches have long been noted for their excellence. Straw plaiting is carried on in the homes of the people.

Cotton and silks are the chief textiles. Silk is produced especially at *Zurich* and *Basel*, where the weaving is done mainly by hand. Cotton also is woven at *Zurich* and at *St. Gall*. Most of the raw material for



FIG. 455. Peasant homes in a high valley among the Swiss Alps.

this industry is secured from the United States. *Geneva* (see Fig. 456), is noted for its watches and clocks, though many of these are made in other towns and sold under the name of Geneva watches.

Trade. Owing to the roads that have crossed the mountain passes for centuries and to the modern railroads, some of which pierce the Alps in long tunnels, Switzerland has an excellent opportunity for trade with the north and with the ports on the Mediterranean. It has to import coal, gold for its jewelry, raw silk, and food stuffs. It secures cotton, wheat, and petroleum from the United States. The chief exports are silks, cottons, watches, machinery, cheese, condensed milk,

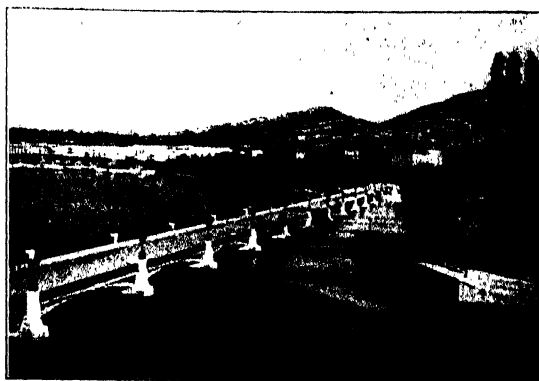


FIG. 456 Approaching the city of Geneva.

and embroideries. The principal part of the trade is with Germany, the United Kingdom, France, Asia, and Italy. The most important trade center is *Zurich*, which, from its situation, is the point of convergence of several railroads.

People. Each of the several states or *cantons* of Switzerland can almost be said to have a different type of inhabitant from any of the neighboring cantons. The mountainous character of the surface does not favor the ready intermingling of the people. Each valley is a more or less isolated region, and hence the inhabitants have little chance to exchange ideas with their neighbors. The mountain peoples are not so intelligent and educated as the people of the valleys. Thus there is no such uniformity of customs or similarity of ideas as is found in a nation upon a plain where people can readily mingle. In spite of these conditions, however, the Swiss have a strong love for their country, as is characteristic of almost all mountain peoples.

The Swiss are painstaking and deft in their handiwork, as is evidenced by their success in wood carving and jewelry work. The mountaineers are brave and daring and make excellent guides. In fact they are the best mountain climbers in the world, and their services are nearly always secured by those who desire to climb difficult peaks in other countries.

Scenery. Switzerland is noted the world over for its great glaciers, its magnificent mountains and lakes, and for the grandeur of its scenery. (See Figs. 453 and 457.) Therefore it is more visited by tourists than any other country in Europe. It is estimated that more than a million and a half of people visit this small country annually, and there are over 1,900 hotels primarily for the accommodation of these strangers. The receipts in money from the tourists are almost as great as the value of the watches and clocks which are sold. Hence the caring for tourists is one of the leading occupations of the people.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Make a list of the countries and mountain ranges which border Switzerland. (2) Find the main divide from which many of the large rivers of Europe flow. (3) Draw a diagram of this with the outflowing rivers; make the diagram as complete as you can. (4) Name the rivers that flow through lakes. What effect has this on the sediment in the river? On the area of the lake? (See page 28.)

(5) What rivers flow from Switzerland? (6) Tell something you have seen or read about the character of these rivers. (7) Tell what you know about a glacier.

(8) Why is so much manufacturing done in Switzerland? (9) Why should the Swiss be

such famous railroad builders? (10) Why are they so advanced in the use of electricity?

(11) On an outline map locate Zurich and draw routes by which the chief imports and exports come in and go out of Switzerland. (12)

What railroads cross at Bern? (13) What town is on the border between Germany and Switzerland?

(14) Tell something of either Switzerland or its people that interests you.

(15) Compare the scenery of Switzerland and Norway. (16)

Why should there be hotels near the tops of the larger mountain passes? (17)

Find out about avalanches.

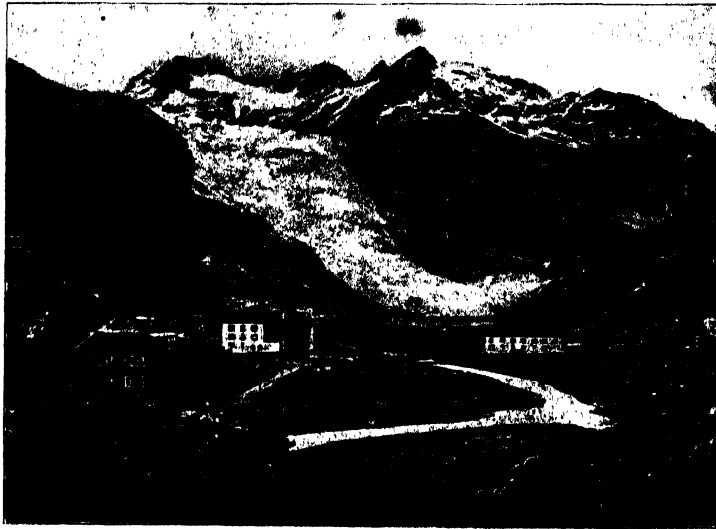


FIG. 457. A glacier high up in the Alps. Notice the stream which flows from under the ice.

LX. ITALY

Surface and Drainage. Italy is a long peninsula nearly as large as Georgia and Florida. The kingdom also includes the islands of *Sicily* and *Sardinia* and many small islands along the coast. The larger part of

the country is occupied by the Apennines and the southern Alps. The Alps slope down abruptly to the great plain of *Lombardy*, which constitutes the larger portion of the lowlands of Italy. To the west of the Apennines from Genoa to Naples is a hilly country

covered by materials thrown out by old and long extinct volcanoes and by detritus brought down by the rivers.

All the good land is in the plain of



FIG. 458. Looking across the broad, fertile coast plains from Pisa.

Lombardy or close to the coast (see Figs. 369 and 458), so that nearly one-fourth of the people live within three miles of the sea. In the Alpine region there are many large and beautiful lakes, which act as reservoirs for holding back the water that comes from the snow and rains of the mountains.

Owing to the abrupt slopes there are few long rivers in Italy. The longest of these is the *Po*, which, with its tributaries, is navigable for about six hundred miles.

In the south of Italy and on the island of Sicily are two of the most famous volcanoes of the world, *Mount Vesuvius* and *Mount Etna*. (See Figs. 69 and 459.) Vesuvius is always quietly active with dangerous eruptions every few years. (See page 40.) A very severe earthquake, which occurred on the island of Sicily in 1908, destroyed *Messina*, and killed many thousands of people.

Climate. The climate of Italy is in many ways similar to that of the Iberian Peninsula because it lies in the westerly wind area in the winter, while in summer the dry southerly winds sweep over it on their way toward the interior of the continent. The larger part of the rainfall, therefore, comes in winter. Italy, like Spain and Portugal, is protected from the cold continental winds of the north by a high mountain barrier. On the east, south, and west it is bathed by the

Mediterranean. The climate, therefore, is largely determined by the nearness of the sea, and is warm and even in consequence. In fact the temperature rarely falls below the freezing point except in the higher altitudes. The Mediterranean coast about the Bay of Genoa, known as the Riviera, has such a balmy winter climate that it is a noted winter resort. (See Fig. 460.)

Owing to the fact that most of the rain falls in winter, the summers are dry and irrigation is necessary for successful agriculture, as it is in other countries of southern Europe. In the lowlands, where there is an abundance of moisture and where the temperature is high, the climate is unhealthful. Malaria, which results from such conditions, may almost be called the national disease, as more than one-sixth of the people of Italy are afflicted by it.

Products of the Soil. Abundant sunshine and fertile soil make Italy essentially an agricultural country. In the irrigated regions from six to ten crops are raised each year. Owing to the variety of climate in the different altitudes on the mountains, Italy can raise all the crops of northern Europe and

very many of the crops of the subtropical regions of the continent. In the basin of the *Po*, with its warmth and abundant water supply, rice is the chief crop. (See Fig. 462.) In-



FIG. 459. The crater of Mount Vesuvius.

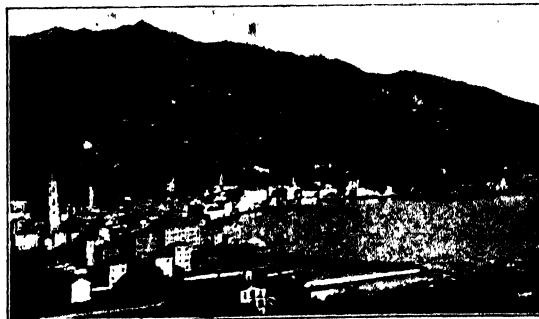


FIG. 460. Rapello, in the Riviera, near Genoa. The climate here is so delightful that the hotels seen on the slopes are always crowded with visitors.

deed, more rice is raised here than in any other country of Europe. Olives are grown everywhere, and much olive oil is produced. Flax and hemp are leading crops in the northern plain and cotton is raised in southern Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia.

Italy is second to France in production of wine (see Fig. 464), and this together with oranges and lemons is the staple product. Raw silk is also important; more than 6,000,000 people are engaged in raising silkworms. (See Fig. 463.)

Wherever the climate is especially favorable for agriculture every available spot is used. The steep slopes are broken into steps by a series of terraces, the tops of which are cultivated. Here the fields, laid out in a regular plan on the steep hillsides, are very picturesque.

The animal products are not important, except for skins secured from goats raised in the mountain regions.

Minerals. Iron is found in Italy, but is not mined to any extent. Coal is not found; manufacturing is therefore carried on at a great disadvantage. The principal rock products are sulphur and Carrara marble, which is much used by sculptors. The island of Sicily produces from its volcanic fields more sulphur than any other country in the world.

Fisheries. Owing to the fact that Italy has a coast line more than four thousand miles long and indented by many good harbors, fishing is easily and profitably carried on. But so great is the demand that not

enough is secured for home consumption. Sponges, sardines, and oysters are the chief ocean products which are of importance in trade. Red coral, which is much used in making jewelry, is secured along the west coast.

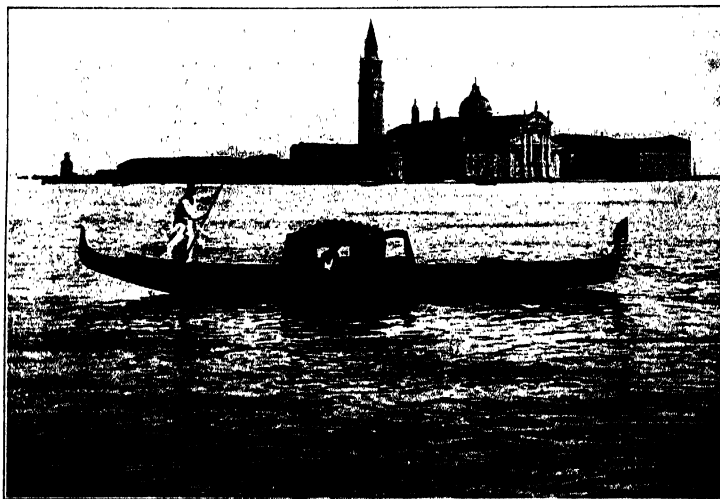


FIG. 464. On the Grand Canal, Venice, with the island of Saint George in the distance.

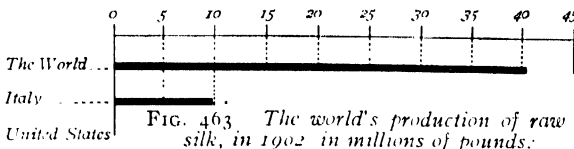
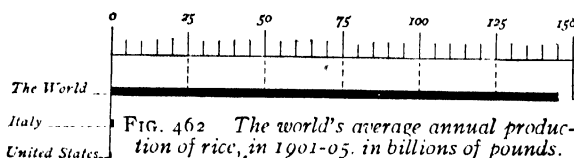
Manufacturing. Owing to

the difficulties mentioned, manufacturing is backward, though constantly improving. The increased use of the abundant water power and the development of electricity from the falls have greatly stimulated this industry. Silk is produced about Milan, famous for its

cathedral. (See Fig. 467.) Straw goods at Leghorn, Venetian glass, and coral jewelry also are important products.

Trade. Because of the nearness of Italy to Africa and the Suez Canal it has an important carrying

trade for the other nations of Europe. Owing to the railroads which connect it with the other countries, it is also able to carry on an extensive inland trade. For the same reason the larger part of its exports to the other countries of Europe go by land in spite of the



fact that the harbors are good and numerous. The most important ports are *Venice*, *Genoa*, and *Naples*. Genoa, on account of its position and its excellent railroad connection with the interior, receives large amounts of the products of Germany in transit to Mediterranean ports and the Far East.

The chief imports are cotton, coal, cereals, silk, and timber; from the United States come also machinery and tobacco. The chief exports

are raw silk, cottons, silks, olive oil, sulphur, eggs, and wine. Trade is largely with Germany, the United Kingdom, United States, France, and Austria. (See Fig. 465.) The imports from the United States are increasing in value, but the exports to our country are unimportant. They are mainly wine, fruits, and sulphur. The chief commercial cities are in the north where the valleys of the Alps and Apennines converge. *Bologna*, *Turin*, and *Milan* are the chief trade centers in the interior.

People. The people of Italy are descended from many different races, but they are now united by the common Italian language, which is very similar to the Latin language used by the Romans. Like other peoples in semi-tropical countries, the Italians are impetuous, quick-tempered, and somewhat

easy-going. They are fond of festivals and sports like the Spanish, and dress in brightly-colored costumes.

The Italians have developed agriculture and manufacturing more than have the Spaniards, and Italy as a result is a progressive nation, though not one of the great nations of the world.

Scenery. The volcanoes, mountains, and lakes, of which we have spoken, are visited by many tourists, but the principal

places of interest are those which are noted for their history, for their healthful conditions, or for their art treasures.

Rome, the capital, was once the most important city in the world, and now contains many ruins which are signs of its former splendor. (See Fig. 466.) It is also famous

for its art galleries which are much visited by tourists and students from all parts of the world. Among its noted buildings are St. Peter's, the largest and most famous church in the world, and the Vatican, an enormous pal-

ace occupied by the Pope and containing a wonderfully interesting library. The Pope is the head of the Roman Catholic Church with its enormous membership in all the leading countries in the world. Rome is also the residence of the king of Italy.

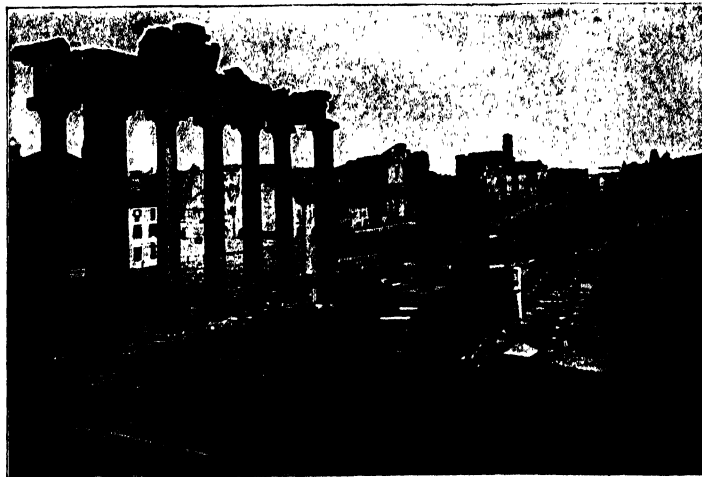
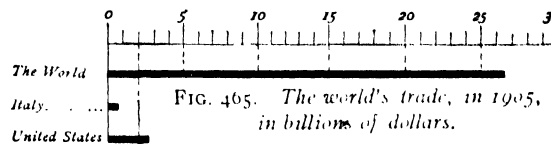
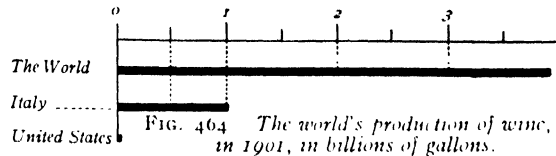


FIG. 466. Ruins of the Forum, Rome.

Venice, the city in the sea, is built on more than a hundred small islands, and travel is largely by means of boats or gondolas which traverse the many canals. (See Fig. 461.) It is full of beautiful palaces and churches, relics from a former period of richness and splendor. The water and the clear blue sky both add to the general beauty of the region, so that it is a favorite resort for artists.

Florence, with its great olive gardens and its world-famous art galleries, is another city much visited by tourists and artists. *Naples*, the largest city of Italy, on the beautiful bay of the same name, has the threatening Mount Vesuvius in the background. Other cities much visited are *Syracuse* in Sicily and the towns along the Italian Riviera.

Malta. The island of Malta belongs to the United Kingdom. It is important for its coaling stations and fortress protecting the commerce of the Eastern Mediterranean as Gibraltar does that of the Western.

Questions and Exercises

(1) From what countries do the Alps separate Italy? (2) Name some Alpine peaks which are on or near the border of Italy. (3) Compare the height of the Apennines and the Alps. (4) Locate Mount Vesuvius; Mount Etna. (5) Name the lakes in northern Italy. (6) Tell something about their surroundings. (7) In what part of Italy are large cities most numerous? (8) Why? (9) Why is Venice no longer an important port? (10) Why was it once a leading commercial city? (11) Why do so many Italians come to the United States?

(12) What is the average temperature of the Mediterranean for January? (13) What influence does this have upon the winter temperature of southern Italy? (14) How does the Mediterranean affect the summer temperature? (15) What is the chief factor which determines the rainfall of Italy? (16) What part do the Alpine lakes play in the productiveness of Italy? (17) Why are large portions of the Apennines unforested?

(18) What natural feature of Italy promotes the use of electricity? (19) What influence will this have upon manufacturing in the future?

(20) On an outline or sketch map of Italy draw the Alps and the Apennines, the Po River and its tributaries, and the Tiber. (21) Draw

the January isotherm of 40° and the July isotherm of 75° . (22) Locate the three important trade cities of the north; Genoa, Venice, Florence, Rome, and Naples; also two important cities in Sicily. (23) Make a list of the exports of Genoa and Naples. (24) Draw in red the ocean trade routes from Italy to New York and from Italy to the East.

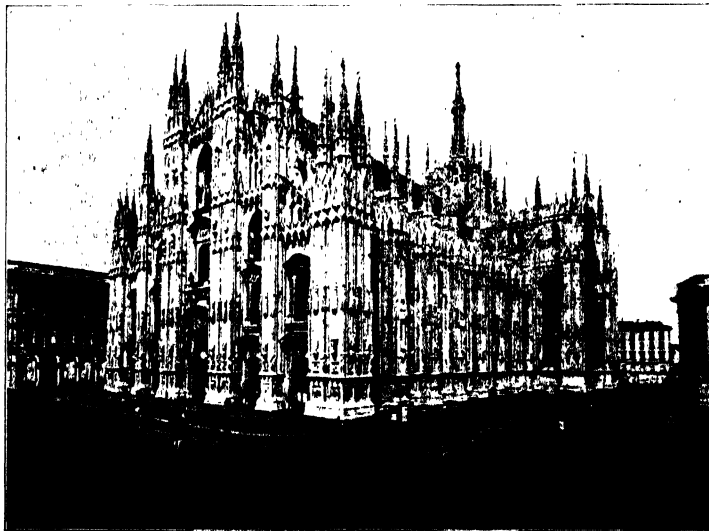


FIG. 467. The Cathedral, Milan.

LXI. AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Size and Surface. Austria-Hungary includes the two countries, Austria and Hungary, which maintain an army and navy in common but are independent in reference to local affairs. About as large as Colorado and Montana, its varied surface ranges from high, rugged mountains to almost unbroken plains. It is an inland region, with the exception of a short, inaccessible coast on the Adriatic, on which *Trieste* is the only important port. (See Fig. 468.) It includes the high eastern Alps, the *Bohemian Plateau*



FIG. 468. Trieste.

nearly the whole of the Carpathians, part of the *Dinaric Alps*, which lie mostly in the Balkan Peninsula, and the Plain of Hungary.

Climate. Austria-Hungary is extremely varied in its climate. On the coast the climate is that of the adjoining ocean. In the southern provinces the winters are mild and the summers dry, as they are in most Mediterranean countries. In the interior the winters are very cold and the summers hot, while in the eastern portion the plains belong to the great dry steppe region of Eurasia.

Products of the Soil. Austria-Hungary is preëminently an agricultural country, owing to its climate and soil. About two-thirds of the people are farmers and more than three-fifths of the total area is devoted to field crops, pasturage, and hay. (See Figs. 470 and 471.) Owing to the fact that the region is generally dry in the summer, droughts are frequent, and crops sometimes fail.

The country as a whole is a great cereal-growing region and the large crops of wheat in the Plain of Hungary make it one of the great granaries of the world. (See Fig. 469.) Rye is raised in the colder mountain areas, maize is grown in the sunny south, and oats

are an important crop in Hungary and northern Austria while the sugar beet is cultivated extensively, especially in Austria. The vine also is cultivated in Hungary, which produces some of the finest wines in the world.

Forests abound in the highland areas of the northwest and in the Carpathians, and furnish products largely made into wine and beer casks for use in France, Italy, and Germany.

Stock Raising. The country as a whole raises more horses than any other country in Europe except Russia. Mules are raised in large numbers in the drier and warmer steppe regions. Poultry is very important in those regions where the underlying rock is limestone and hence well drained, so that the surface is dry. Cattle are raised and dairying is carried on in the higher pastures of the Alps as in Switzerland and France.

Mining. Austria-Hungary abounds in coal and iron, gold, silver, salt, and zinc. Most

of the coal produced is mined in Bohemia or in the region north and south of Vienna. Indeed it is the proximity of good coal

that determines in a large measure the importance of the manufacturing which centers at Vienna, the chief city of the country.

Manufacturing. Manufacturing has developed slowly, largely because of the lack of new machinery and modern methods, and also because the country has poor connection

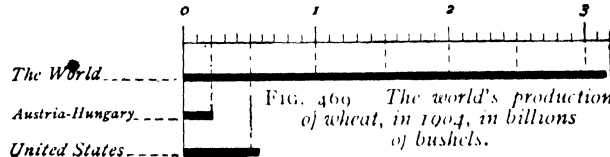


FIG. 470. Haying near Linz in Austria.



FIG. 471. Threshing grain in Bosnia.

with ocean ports. It is best developed in the north and the northwest, where for that reason the population has become most dense.

Budapest (see Fig. 472), the capital of Hungary, is a great milling city; its dry atmosphere is especially favorable for the milling of wheat into the best of flour.

Textiles are on the whole the leading products of the country. Carpets and silks are manufactured at *Vienna*.

Gloves and leather goods are made at *Vienna*, *Prague*, and at *Innsbruck*. Most of the leather, however, comes from the highlands of Hungary and the Balkan Peninsula.

Another product of Austria-Hungary that is of great importance is Bohemian glass, noted for its beauty of coloring.

Trade. The passes which connect the country with its seacoast on the Adriatic and the gap of the Danube at the Iron Gate are the chief outlets for trade. The few railroads center at *Vienna* and at *Budapest*.

Vienna is located at the crossing of the chief north-south and east-west routes and hence is the leading commercial city. (See Fig. 376.) The natural highways now followed by the railroads, which converge at *Vienna*, have been of importance as trade routes since the earliest times. Therefore, *Vienna* has long been the chief city in Austria, and is one of the most interesting ancient

cities of Europe. It has many fine buildings (see Fig. 473), and a noted university.

The railroads are more important than the rivers because the latter flow into interior seas. The Danube, with its trade with eastern and southeastern Europe, is the most important water route.

The imports are chiefly wool and cotton for the textile mills, coal, and tobacco. Cotton is brought from Egypt and the United States. The United States also sends maize, swine products, and pig iron. The chief exports are sugar, eggs, pottery, and beer to other countries. The larger portion of the trade is with Germany and the United Kingdom. The United States is second in the import trade of Austria-Hungary, but receives few exports from that country.

People. Austria-Hungary is a country of many nationalities and many languages. Though the Germans are most numerous in the north and the Italians in the southwest, there are but three provinces in which only one language is generally spoken.

Scenery. Austria-Hungary is an interesting country in which to travel. Its two chief cities are much visited, *Vienna* because of its present progress and its interesting history, and *Budapest* because it is one of the most accessible of the cities which are distinctly eastern or oriental in character.

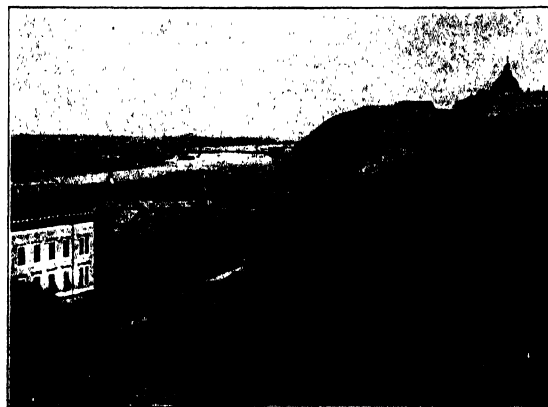


FIG. 472. Budapest.

Tirol, adjacent to Switzerland, and Bohemia, in the extreme northwest, are the regions most admired and visited by tourists because of their natural beauty. The Tirolese mountaineers, with their picturesque costumes and their villages among the beautiful mountains, attract many artists to this region.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Name the countries and mountains that border Austria-Hungary. (2) What can you say of its coast line? (3) What geographical reason can you give for the fact that Austria is a difficult country to govern?

(4) What part of Austria-Hungary has a mild climate? A dry climate? Cold winters? Heavy summer rainfall?

(5) In what way is the Danube the key to the whole country? (6) What are its tributaries? (7) Where is the Iron Gate, and why is it so called? (8) Where would the people of Vienna be likely to go for summer outings?

The citizens of Munich? (9) What can you say of the forests of Austria-Hungary? (10) For what products and manufactures is it important? (11) What are the chief imports, and from what countries do they come? (12) Why should leather goods be an important export? (13) Compare the chief industries of Minneapolis and Budapest. (14) In each case tell why this industry is located here. Compare the climate of the two cities, their position, and their population.

(15) How many lines of traffic cross at Vienna? (16) What reason can you give for this? (17) On a map of Europe trace two routes from Moscow to Marseilles; two from London to Constantinople. (18) What city lies at the crossing of these routes? (19) Consult the product map and tell what natural products are found near Vienna. (20) Why

has it grown to be a manufacturing city? (21) Why is the term "Gate City" appropriate to Vienna? (22) Find a "Gate City" in the United States. (23) Draw a diagram showing routes by which goods may be sent from Budapest.

LXII. ROUMANIA AND THE BALKAN PENINSULA

ROUMANIA

Surface. Roumania is for the most part a continuation of the great plain of Russia,

which has already been described. It also contains the delta of the Danube River, the largest channel for internal trade in Europe. It is separated from the Balkan Peninsula by the Danube River, and is bounded on the west by the Transylvanian Alps and



FIG. 473. The public square and market in Vienna.

the great rugged wall of the Carpathians.

Climate; Products; Cities. Owing to the inland position of Roumania, it has a great annual range of temperature and has its rainfall in the early summer. The rainfall decreases toward the southeast, so that this portion of the country is a pastoral region. (See Fig. 474.) Elsewhere the area is a great granary, in which maize and wheat thrive, owing to the abundance of sunshine. These products are sent largely to the United Kingdom and Belgium. Salt and petroleum are produced in the region of the Carpathians.

Bukarest, the capital, is a great trade center situated at the crossing of two railroads from

Austria-Hungary to the Black Sea; *Galatz*, from its position on the Danube, carries on trade with Germany. The other towns are small and unimportant in trade.

THE BALKAN PENINSULA

Surface; Importance. The Balkan Peninsula is a distinctly mountainous country, one of the most mountainous in Europe, and includes the several countries, *Servia*, *Bulgaria*, *Montenegro*, *Turkey*, and *Greece*.

Forming as it does a land bridge between the prosperous regions of Europe and the most densely inhabited countries of Asia, the Balkan Peninsula is a great highway of trade. Two important railways follow the natural depressions between the mountains and connect Constantinople and Salonica with Belgrade and thence with the cities of Austria-Hungary.

Climate. The center and the east coast of the Balkan Peninsula have a continental climate with cold winters and warm summers. The greatest rainfall is in summer when the southwest monsoon winds bring moisture from the Mediterranean. The east coast along the *Ægean* has mild winters and the Adriatic coast has a much warmer winter than is found along the Black Sea. Eastern Turkey is largely a steppe area, owing to the extreme dryness.

Products. Forests cover vast areas of this region and in the forests many sheep and goats are raised, especially in *Servia* and *Greece*. These animals feed on the acorns and the beech nuts. In the warmer valleys maize, tobacco, and cotton are raised, but agriculture on the whole is not well developed.

COUNTRIES

Servia. *Servia*, because of its position, exports a large portion of its swine, cattle, and agricultural products to Austria-Hungary. *Belgrade* is the chief center of trade, and about this city carpets and cotton and silk goods are manufactured.

Bulgaria. *Bulgaria* is in part fertile and prosperous. Its most valuable products are grain, animals, and the *attar of roses*, a very delicate perfume made from rose leaves. *Sofia* is the chief town and trade center, owing to its position on the Constantinople-Belgrade Railroad.

Montenegro. *Montenegro* is a small and unimportant country which is so mountainous that stock-raising is the chief industry. It also does some fishing, but its total products are so few that nearly everything except food has to be imported.

Turkey. *Turkey* in Europe is a small country only about as large as Washington. The greater part of the Turkish possessions, forming the remain-



FIG. 474. Roumanian peasants spinning in their cottage.

der of the Ottoman Empire, are in Asia Minor and in Arabia, though Turkey also has considerable territory in northern Africa. The empire is ruled by a despot, known as the Sultan, who is also the head of the Mohammedan church. It is the only non-Christian country in Europe, and owing to its bad government and its continual persecution of people of other religions, it is very backward in business and enterprise.

Turkey exports fruits, tobacco, mohair, and silk in small quantities, and imports the larger part of its food products and

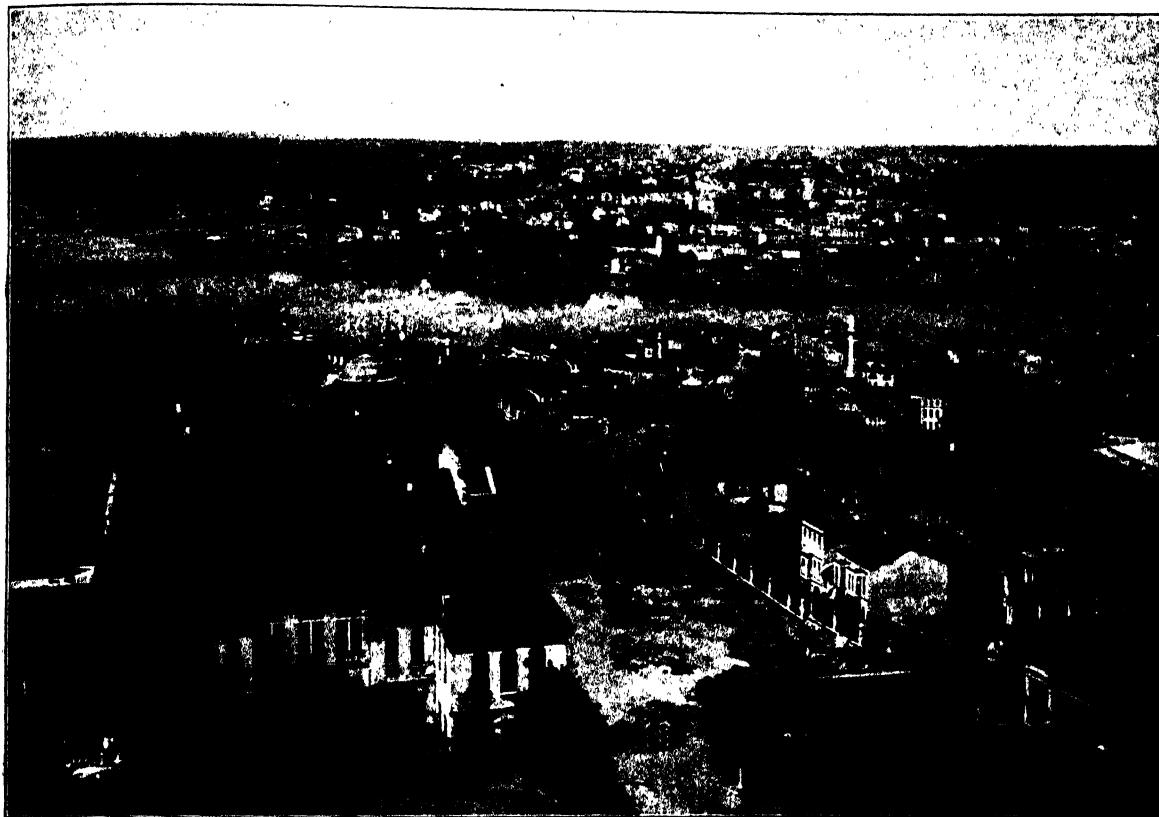


FIG. 475. The city of Constantinople.

manufactured goods. *Constantinople*, on a beautiful harbor known as the Golden Horn, and at the crossing of the land and sea routes to the east (see Fig. 475), controls the Black Sea commerce and is the principal port. *Salonica* is the second port and town in importance.

Greece. Greece has neither fuel nor power, so that it is not adapted to manufacturing. It has few railroads or highways. It has many fine harbors, however, and large numbers of the people are engaged in fishing. In early times its enterprising mariners controlled the commerce of the Mediterranean. Its people have always been seafarers. Agriculture is the chief industry. Live stock, chiefly sheep and goats, are raised. (See Fig. 477.) Fruits are grown by means of irrigation. Olives, tobacco, certain grapes dried and known as currants, and wine (see Fig. 476) from the peninsula and the Greek

islands furnish the exports. Textiles and leather working are carried on in the homes of the people.

The chief town is *Athens*, the capital, once the most famous city of the world, and the leader in the arts, poetry, and sciences of ancient times. Athens, like Rome, abounds in evidences of its former greatness, and is much visited for its historic places of interest and because of its many impressive ruins. The most noted and beautiful ruin is that of the Parthenon, an ancient temple situated on a high hill overlooking the city and known as the Acropolis.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Which of the Balkan countries are bordered by the Danube? (2) Explain the importance of the location of Belgrade; of Bukarest; of Salonica; of Constantinople. (3) Trace the routes by which the exports are sent out of these countries to New York.

(4) Describe the coast of *Ægean Sea*. (5) To what land form do the islands in this sea really belong? (6) Why would you expect the Greeks to be a seafaring people? (7) Why are they not to-day a great carrying nation? (8) Why was it easy for the Greeks to go across to Asia in early times? (9) Locate Athens and tell something of its past history. (10) What famous building was located at Athens? (11) Find out if many Greeks migrate to the United States, and what they do here.

SUMMARY

Western Europe, with its moist climate and large area available for occupation, is densely inhabited, while the population grows more scanty toward the east, where the dryness precludes occupations which permit people to live closely together. The continent has a great variety of climate and surface and an extensive coast line. Thus nearly all the nations have ready access to the sea, even though they have no seacoast. Within its area have grown up the countries of the world which are most important, not only for their present progress and wealth, but because of their influence upon the world as a whole throughout several centuries. The great nations of Europe have been the leaders in exploring and colonizing the world, and the United Kingdom, Germany, Norway, and France still lead in the work of exploration. Our country was not only explored and developed by Europeans, but our customs,

laws, speech, and racial characteristics all show the influence of Europeans. The present position of the European nations is shown by the fact that their influence is

important in international affairs the world over. The weaker nations are protected by the stronger, and no small nation can take any step that will produce a change in the political geography of Europe without the approval of the so-called Great Powers. The United Kingdom, Germany, France, and the Netherlands have

together more than two-thirds of the trade of the continent, while the continent as a whole has three-fifths of the commerce of the world. The importance of Europe to the United States is clearly indicated by the fact that nearly one-half of our commerce is with the United Kingdom, Germany, and France.

The importance of Europe in trade is best shown by the fact that the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, Italy, Norway, and France in the order named have the largest merchant fleets. The development of commerce and the possession of dependencies in other parts of the world have caused the United Kingdom, France, United States, Germany, and Japan,

to have the five largest navies in the world, while the United Kingdom, Germany, and France, together with the United States, are the chief commercial nations of the globe.

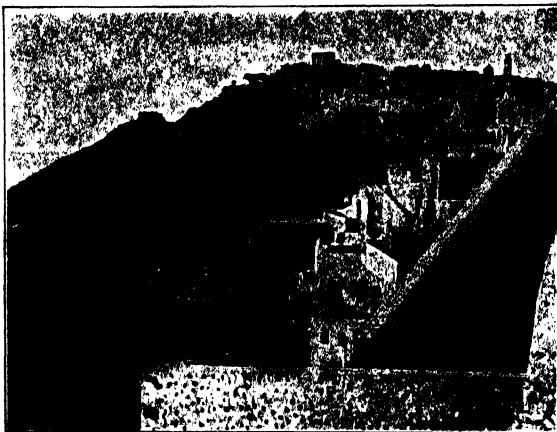


FIG. 476. City of Thera, on the volcanic island of Santorin. Grapes for wine are grown on the adjacent slopes.

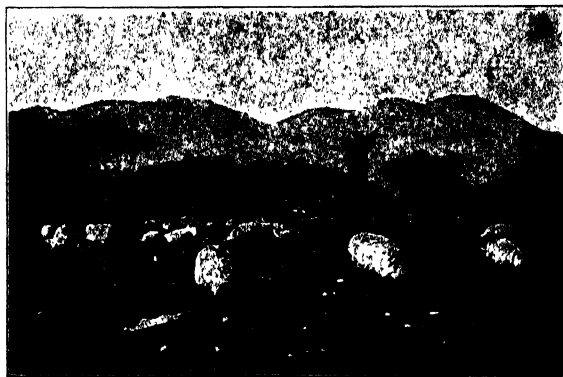


FIG. 477. Grazing in a dry valley of Greece.

AFRICA

LXIII. THE CONTINENT AS A WHOLE

Size and Outline. Africa, next to Asia, is the largest continent (see Fig. 28), but it is outranked in population by both Asia and Europe. It lies very close to Europe and is joined to Asia by the narrow isthmus of Suez. Africa extends from the latitude of Richmond, Virginia, to that of Buenos Aires; hence it lies almost wholly in the tropics. The coast line is regular. As the continent has no deep estuaries or pronounced peninsulas, it possesses few good harbors. (See Fig. 482.)

There are no important islands bordering the coast of Africa. *Madagascar*, the largest island, is not connected with the continent by any shallows, and hence is an oceanic rather than a continental island. (See Fig. 481.)

Surface. The surface of Africa consists for the most part of a series of great plateaus with mountain ranges rising above them, and a narrow hem of lowlands along the coast. The average altitude of the land in the northern half of the continent is under 2,000 feet, although this portion contains the *Atlas Mountains*, which rise to a height of more than 14,000 feet along the northwestern coast. Just to the east of the Atlas range is a small area below sea level.

Another highland runs northeast and southwest across the continent from a point on the

western shore of the Red Sea to a point north of the Gulf of Guinea.

The average elevation of the rest of Africa is about 4,000 feet. This region includes the *Plateau of Abyssinia* on the east, the most important highland of the continent. This plateau extends to the south, and is really continued into the *Kwaathlamba* or *Drakenburg Mountains* of South Africa, although the highland is lost sight of in a part of East Africa. (See Figs. 478 and 481.) Close to the equator a series of old volcanoes rises to a height of 18,000 or 19,000 feet. Among these are *Kilima-njaro* and *Kenia*, the highest mountains of Africa.

Drainage. Although Africa contains some of the largest and longest rivers in the world, it is more deficient in routes for interior water

commerce than any other continent. Each of the great rivers is interrupted somewhere in its lower course by a series of falls which acts as a barrier to trade and travel. It is in part for this reason that the exploration of Africa has been so long delayed, and that the interior trade is still in a backward condition. The largest streams flow to the Atlantic, as they do in nearly all the continents.

The longest river is the *Nile*, which flows north from the highlands down a succession of terraces into the Mediterranean. (See Fig. 480.) The size of this stream varies greatly at different times of the year. It receives most



FIG. 478. The position of Africa among the continents.

of its water from its eastern tributary when the wet seasons prevail in the highlands.

The *Congo*, flowing down across the interior plateau to the west, is the second largest

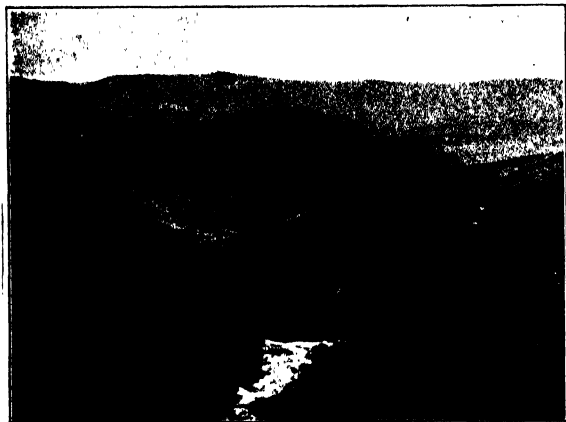


FIG. 479. *The rolling surface of the land in the grazing country of South Africa.*

river system of the continent, and one of the largest in the world. It opens up the vast interior forests of Africa, but is so interrupted by rapids that it cannot readily be used as a trade route. (See Fig. 490.)

In western Africa, north of the equator, the *Niger* is the principal stream.

In the southern portion of the continent the divide between the east and west drainage is mostly to the west of the highland, so that the large rivers, the *Zambesi* and the *Limpopo*, have to cut through the ridge to reach the sea.

More than a fourth of the continent has interior drainage, a greater proportion than is found in any other continent except Asia. In this region of interior drainage lies the large fresh-water lake, *Lake Chad*, which in times of flood has an outlet to the northeast into a low, salt basin.

Climate. Owing to the position of Africa in the Hot Belt, the climate is everywhere tropical except in the extreme south. In the southern summer Africa lies entirely in the trade-wind region and the region of the doldrums; the northern part in the northeastern

trade-wind belt, the central portion in the doldrums, and the south in the southeastern trade-wind belt. In the southern winter these winds occupy the whole continent north of the southern tropic. As a result the climatic features are very symmetrical on both sides of the equator. (See Fig. 76.)

The rainfall of Africa, except in the equatorial region, is extremely small. Throughout the larger part of northern Africa the annual rainfall is less than twenty inches, though on the northern, or windward slopes, of the Atlas Mountains it increases to more than forty inches in places.

The northeastern trade winds, originating in Asia or in southern Europe, pass over so small an area of water that they do not receive all the moisture they can carry. As they pass over Africa they grow warmer and therefore become capable of absorbing more moisture. Hence they evaporate the moisture from the lands over which they blow, and as a result we find the largest desert in the world in northern Africa. The only rainfall in this desert region occurs on the scattered peaks which rise above the plateaus of the Sahara to an altitude of more than 6,000 feet.

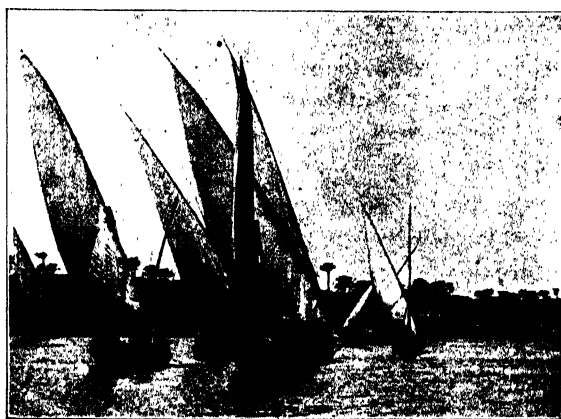


FIG. 480. *Egyptian sailing vessels on the Nile.*

The rainfall of southwestern Africa is under twenty inches; most of it falls in summer when the trade winds bring moisture from the Indian Ocean.

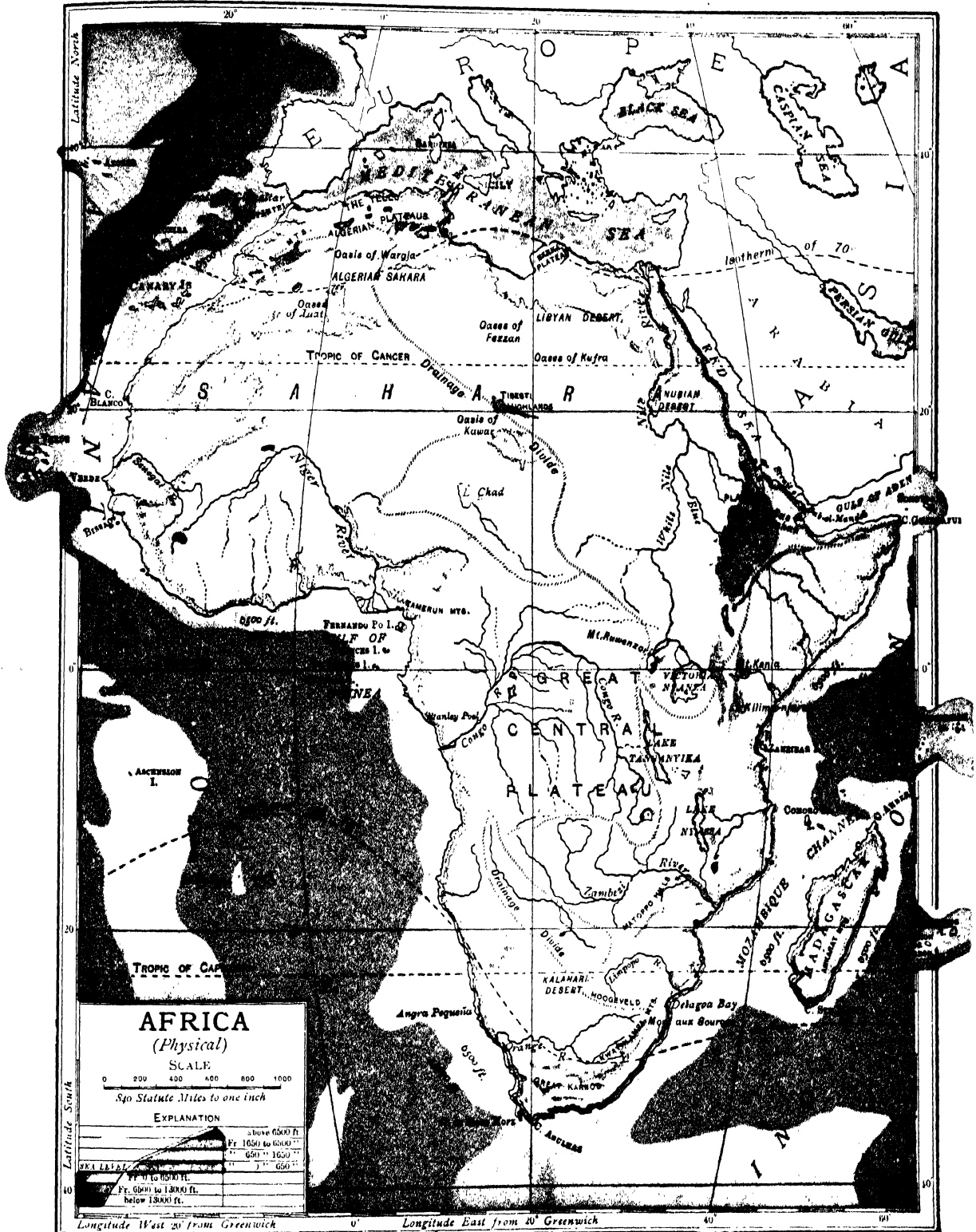


FIG. 481.

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Central Africa, between 10 degrees north and 15 degrees south latitude, is occupied by the doldrum belt and therefore has a heavy rainfall. It is heaviest along the western coast, reaching a maximum in Liberia. Owing to the excessive warmth and moisture and the prevalence of swamps, this region is the most unhealthful in the world. The plateaus of the tropical region, however, rise to a sufficient height to have a climate cool enough for occupation by white people. Even in these more favored sections, however, the climate is so unhealthful that no one yet knows whether or not Central Africa is likely to be permanently occupied by the white race.

Vegetation. The vegetation regions of Africa are distributed in accordance with the distribution of the rainfall. The coastal areas north of the Atlas Mountains are grass regions with trees, and can be cultivated. The southern slopes of the Atlas are a great steppe, which in turn merges into the immense desert plain, *Sahara*, with practically no vegetation except that found in the oases. Grassy steppes are also found south of the Sahara, lying between the tropical savannas and the desert. This savanna region grows wider toward the east in the Sudan. (See Fig. 119.)

Central Africa is entirely occupied by open savannas and tropical forests; the forests are more dense than those found anywhere else in the world except in the valley of the Amazon.

In the well-watered regions of the southeast, grasslands and agricultural regions are found. In the southwest is a steppe region with deserts close to the Atlantic coast. This desert region, known as the *Kalahari*, is not so dry as the Sahara, as is shown by the fact that it has heavy dews almost every night. The dews are formed, of course, by the chilling of the air, so that some of the moisture which evaporates during the intense heat of the day is again condensed.

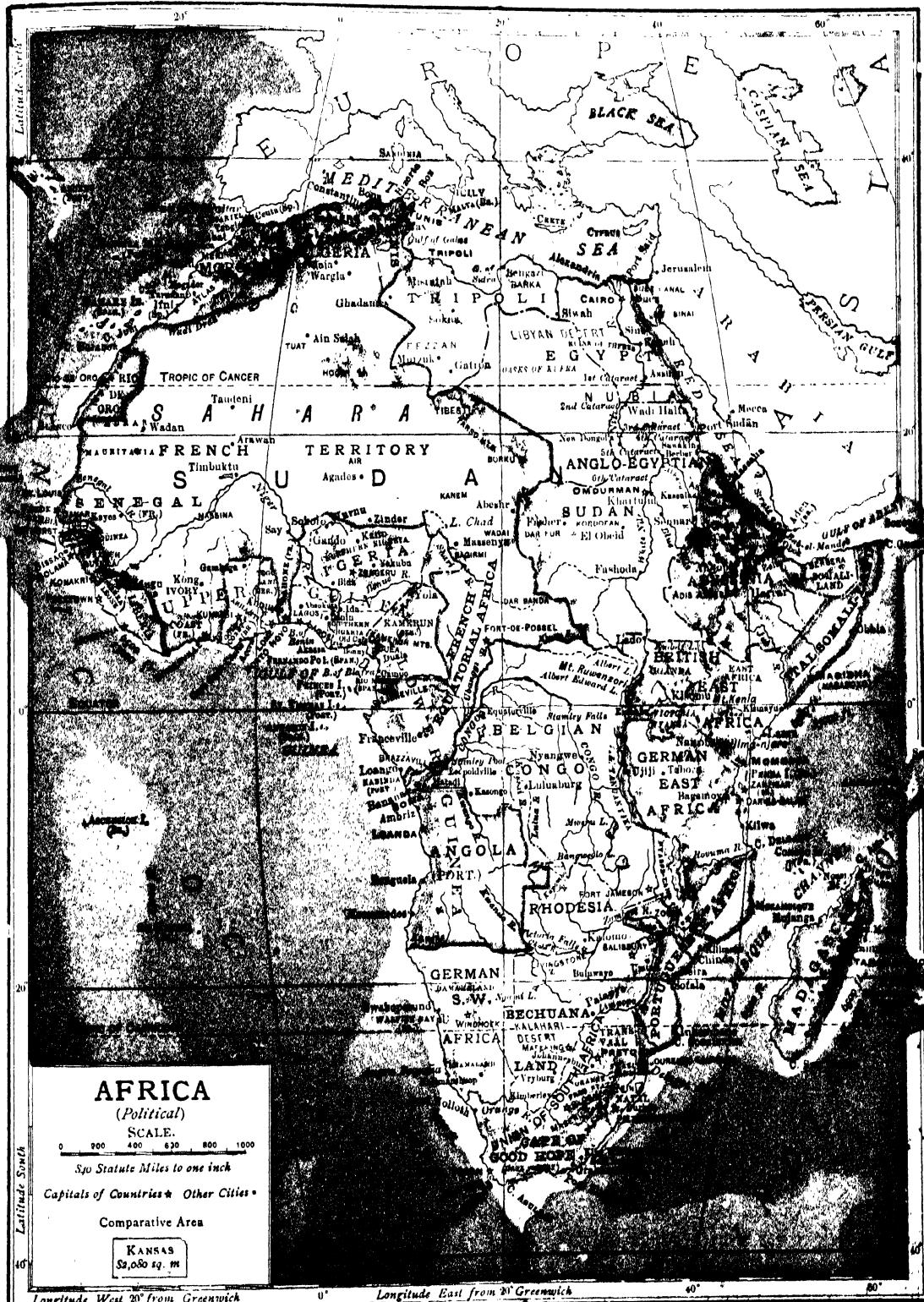
Animals. The animals of northern Africa as far south as the northern tropic are like those of Europe. The rest of Africa belongs to the Ethiopian Region, the general features of which have already been described. (See page 75.)

In the savannas are great numbers of antelopes and giraffes which feed upon the grass. Here are found also the carnivora, or flesh-eaters, such as the lion, the hyena, and the leopard, which prey upon the grass eaters. In the forest regions are the tusked elephants, now being rapidly destroyed, and the man-like apes. Crocodiles and hippopotamuses (see Fig. 147) abound in all the rivers of the tropical region. Camels and ostriches are found in the desert and steppe areas and are of great value to man.

People. North of the southern Sahara the native people of Africa all belong to the white race. Elsewhere they are blacks, although Europeans are found scattered in the various colonies, and in great numbers in South Africa. (See Fig. 169.) The blacks abound in the Sudan and in tropical Africa, and the Bantus, or light-colored blacks, in South Africa. (See Figs. 489, 494, and 495.) In the Congo forests are the primitive and dwarfed Negritos, the smallest people in the world.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Write a composition comparing Africa and North America, making statements about each as to (a) its position as regards the equator, (b) its distance and direction from Europe, (c) its coast line, (d) its harbors, (e) the effect of its coast line on settlement. (2) Study the relief map and tell what influence the eastern highland has upon the rivers which cross it. (3) In what latitude is the source of the Nile? The mouth? (4) Compare the length of the Nile and the Mississippi in degrees of latitude; of the Zambezi and the St. Lawrence. (5) Study the physical and commercial maps and tell which rivers of Africa are most important commercially. (6) Why is the Niger of less importance than the Nile? (7) Find out something about the Congo. (8) Give the reason for rainfall on the high plateaus of the Sahara. (9) Where is tropical Africa? (10) Which



part is more likely to be occupied by white people? (11) During what months do the heavy rains of this region occur? (12) Why does the southeastern coast have rain when the interior is dry? (13) Tell why the animals of northern Africa are similar to those of Europe.

(14) Draw on a sheet of blank paper two small sketch maps of Africa. On the first draw the Heat Equator and color in red that part of Africa in the Hot Belt. On the second draw the Heat Equator; indicate the direction of the winds, and the regions of heaviest rainfall.

LXIV. NORTHERN AFRICA

Countries. Northern Africa includes *Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, Tripoli, Egypt*, and so much of the northern portion of the Sahara as is under the protection of these countries. With the exception of the coast region of *Algeria*, all this vast country is a desert in which irrigation is necessary to carry on agriculture. Irrigation is practiced largely about the oases and in the river valleys of *Morocco, Tunis, and Egypt*.

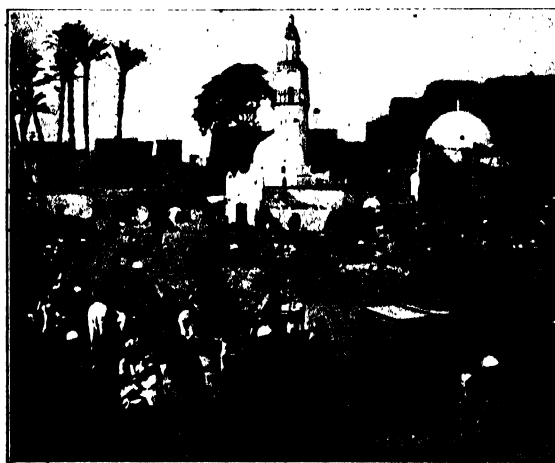


FIG. 483. A street bazaar in Siut on the Nile above Cairo.

EGYPT

The Valley of the Nile. Egypt is a tributary state of Turkey, though most of its affairs are managed by the English government. It consists practically of the valley of the Nile with the bordering desert areas.

The Nile, famous for its annual floods, receives the most of its water from the Plateau of Abyssinia, where the rainfall is greatest in the summer months. The river begins to rise about the twenty-sixth of June and begins to overflow in September. As the water settles it leaves exposed the flood plain, which it has thoroughly saturated with water and covered with a fine layer of silt. This silt forms a very excellent soil for agri-

culture, and therefore farming can be carried on with profit wherever irrigation is possible. The flood plain of the Nile, because of its annual floods, has long been famous as an agricultural region. It is the seat of an extremely ancient civilization, which was made possible by the natural productiveness of the region. Its famous cities have long since declined in importance or have disappeared, but their ruins remain as a witness to the country's former splendor.

Irrigation. Two kinds of irrigation are practiced in the basin of the Nile. In Upper, that is, southern, Egypt the water is gathered in large natural basins and will irrigate the neighboring region for about two and a half months of the dry season. The principal crops, therefore, are those that mature in a short growing season, such as beans, clover, wheat, and barley.

In the delta portion the water is pumped from the river, or in some way distributed over the land so that it can be used at all seasons. Thus, in this section agriculture is possible the year through, and the principal crops are those that require a long growing season, such as sugar cane, dates, and rice, though wheat, maize, and durra, the principal food of the people, are raised in large quantities.

A great dam has recently been completed at Assuan, so that the water of the Nile can be held back from November to April and let out upon the lower countries as it is needed. The lake thus formed is about two hundred miles long. Irrigation can now be practiced in Lower or northern Egypt to a far greater extent than ever before, and it is expected



that the area devoted to agriculture will be greatly increased.

Products of the Soil. Upper Egypt produces wheat, barley, corn, clover, and beans. Wheat is the leading crop, and occupies one-half the agricultural area. Lower Egypt raises cotton, wheat, millet, sugar cane, rice, and sub-tropical fruits, such as figs, dates, lemons, and oranges. Cotton is the most important product. Egyptian cotton is very valuable, owing to its long fiber, which is much prized in fine spinning.

Trade. Nearly one-half of the trade of Egypt is with the United Kingdom and one-fifteenth with Germany. The chief exports are cotton and cotton seed; the chief imports are cotton manufactures, coal, wood, and metals. Ivory and rubber are secured from the most southern portions of Egypt. A large quantity of these products is also sent out by way of the coast of West Africa. Vast areas in Egypt could be improved but for poor labor and the lack of cheap communication.

Cities. *Cairo*, a picturesque and ancient city at the head of the delta of the Nile, is the capital of Egypt. Cairo is a favorite resort for tourists who desire to visit the famous Pyramids and the Sphinx, or to take the trip up the Nile. (See Figs. 127, 483, and 488.)

Alexandria, at the mouth of the western distributary of the Nile, has long been the chief port of Egypt. Port

Said, at the northern extremity of the Suez Canal, is a coaling station. Through it passes a great quantity of valuable products from the Far East.

The Suez Canal. The Suez Canal from Port Said to Suez is eighty-seven miles long and lies entirely in Egypt. The completion of this canal has not only greatly shortened the distance by water between western Europe and the East Indies, but it enables vessels to follow a safer route than that around the Cape of Good Hope. (See Figs. 161, 485, and 486.)

About four thousand vessels pass through the canal annually; a number, however, not nearly so great as that passing through the Sault Ste. Marie Canal in the United States. But it should be remembered that the vessels passing through the Suez Canal are nearly all loaded with goods of such a character that great value is concentrated in a small bulk, so that the wealth passing through the Suez Canal far surpasses that carried through any other canal in the world.

TRIPOLI

Characteristics; Trade. Tripoli is a Turkish province and includes the oases of Fezzan and the small plateau of Barka. The oases are the only rich portion of the region. *Tripoli*, the only seaport and the chief town, is the northern terminus of many important caravan routes across the Sahara. (See Fig. 487.)

The chief exports,



FIG. 485. The port of Suez, an important commercial distributing point.



FIG. 486. Steaming through the Suez Canal.

with the exception of dates, which are produced at home, are brought to Tripoli by caravans from the interior. They include ostrich feathers, ivory, skins, and gold.

ALGERIA AND TUNIS

Algeria and Tunis are both dependencies of France. Algeria is her richest and most valuable colony, and Tunis is under French protection. Many railroads and highways have been built in Algeria at national expense; harbors have been constructed and artesian wells have been sunk. The people are progressive and the country is increasing in importance.

Climate and Soil.

The climate of both countries is like that of Spain and Italy, distinctly Mediterranean. The most important agricultural region lies on the coast of Algeria and is known as the *Tell*. Another rich region is in Tunis in the valley between the ranges of the Atlas mountains, where the chief river floods the country after winter rains and enriches it, very much as the Nile enriches Egypt. The region south of the Atlas is occupied by nomadic tribes, except where an occasional oasis gives opportunity for permanent habitation. (See Fig. 169.)

Products; Exports. The *Tell* exports olive oil, wheat, barley, and early vegetables. Alfa grass, which is very important in paper making, grows on the plateau between the north and south ranges of the Atlas mountains.

Cork oak is found in both Algeria and Tunis; Algeria exports more

than Spain and Portugal combined. It also exports phosphates, iron, and zinc. Other important exports are dates and excellent wine.

Sheep and goats graze in large numbers in the higher regions, but owing to the scarcity of water during the summer the amount of grazing is limited.

Cities. *Algiers*, the chief port of Algeria, is an important coaling station for Mediterranean

vessels. The Arab portion is situated on a hill with the modern town at its foot.

Tunis, owing to its location, is more important as a port than *Algiers*. It is connected with the sea by means of a canal so that ocean-going vessels can land at its wharves.



FIG. 487. A caravan preparing to start across the Sahara.

MOROCCO

Morocco is an independent Mohammedan country in which European influence has thus far had little effect; indeed, large areas in the country are not safe for Europeans. The surface is rugged except along the coast, and includes the southwestern portion of the Atlas Mountains. Owing to the absence of railroads or highways, all travel is by horse or camel.

Climate; Trade. Morocco has a fine climate, excellent soil, and mineral wealth, especially in copper; but these conditions have been little utilized except for raising tropical fruit.

Tangier is the only port of importance in Morocco, and the center of what little trade the country has. The commerce is small and is chiefly with England and France. It includes small quantities of grain, eggs, beans, almonds, wool, oil,



FIG. 488. Sakkara, a Nile village near Cairo. Close by are the most celebrated of the Pyramids.

and some few characteristic manufactures such as Fez caps and leather. The manufactured products are sent, for the most part, to the other countries in northern Africa.

Questions and Exercises

(1) During what season does the upper Nile overflow? (2) How do the people get the water from the river to their fields? (3) What European country is chiefly interested in promoting trade and means of communication in Egypt? (4) Find out what you can about the Cairo and Cape Railroad. (5) Account for the location of Cairo. (6) Compare the rainfall of Cairo and New Orleans. (7) What effect has the climate of Egypt had upon the preservation of its ancient monuments? What do you know about the effect of a more moist climate upon stone? (8) Make a comparison between the Suez and "Soo" canals as to position, width and length, amount of tonnage, value of tonnage, and general importance.

(9) Why should Tripoli be more of a terminus for caravan routes than Tunis? (10) In what ways has French control been of benefit to Algeria and Tunis? (11) Why is Morocco so little developed? (12) Find out all you can about the caravans of Africa.

LXV. CENTRAL AFRICA

Countries and Ownership.

Central Africa includes all the continent lying between the northern tropic and German Southwest Africa. Within this vast territory there are now only two independent states—*Liberia*, a negro republic, and *Abyssinia*.

Abyssinia, a country of lofty tablelands, is ruled by a king. Belgian Congo, once an independent state, is now a colony of Belgium.

The other countries are controlled by European nations, especially the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Portugal, and Italy. Each of these nations is constantly endeavor-

ing to increase its holdings, and almost every year, new boundary lines are being established.

Climate. The climate of central Africa is everywhere tropical in temperature and varies in the amount of moisture from the extreme dryness of the greatest

desert in the world to the exceedingly rainy regions of the Congo Basin. (See Fig. 97.) In the lowland regions the climate is extremely weakening for white people, and malaria is common even among the natives.

Products of the Soil. In the grassy steppe region of the Sudan, just south of the Sahara, date palms and cereals are grown. In Upper

Guinea and the southern British Sudan, cotton, maize, and millet can be raised.

In the damp equatorial belt of the Congo Basin and on the eastern coast the products are all derived from the forests, chiefly from the cocoa and oil palms and the banana trees. The oil is exported for use in making soap, and bananas are the chief food of the people. South of the Congo, in the savanna regions, cotton, maize, and millet are produced, as in the similar region to the north. In German and British East Africa rubber, ivory,

and coffee are the chief products.

Development. The development of central Africa, the country of the Blacks, has been very

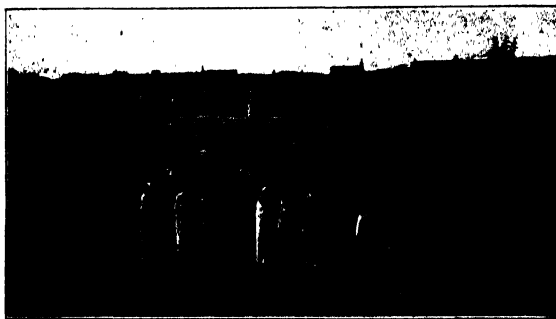


FIG. 489. Natives and their mud hut villages in Portuguese East Africa.



FIG. 490. The Congo River. Notice the dense forest and the canoe dug from a log.



FIG. 491. *Dar-es-Salam, the Capital of German East Africa. Note its modern appearance.*

slow. Most of the countries have anything but a settled government and the slave trade is still carried on. The soil is not generally fertile, and the means of communication with the interior are poor. Navigation on the great rivers is interrupted by falls and rapids, which means that goods must oftentimes be unloaded, transferred around the rapids, and reloaded, so that the cost of carrying on commerce is excessive.

In the north, products are transported largely by caravans, which take three months to go from Sudan to Tripoli. (See Fig. 484.) On the east coast, owing to the absence of roads, goods are carried by human porters. Each porter will carry from fifty to a hundred pounds, and will cover from eighteen to twenty-two miles a day. Oxen cannot be used on account of the tsetse fly, whose bite is fatal to cattle. For these reasons development has been extremely backward. However, the progress made in this region in recent years in spite of the difficulties has been greater than the early great explorers, Livingston and Stanley, deemed possible.



FIG. 492. *Negro warriors of Central Africa. Notice their hut behind them.*

Trade. Oil and oil seeds, ivory, and rubber are the chief exports of central Africa. The amount of these products is constantly decreasing, however, owing to the reckless way the sources of supply are destroyed. This is especially true of ivory (see Fig. 484), as the elephants are killed faster than they can increase.

Lagos, in Nigeria, is one of the chief ports. It has a large trade in palm oil. Loanda, in Angola, is the second port in importance. Dar-es-Salam (see Fig. 491) is the only good harbor on the German coast.

Questions and Exercises

(1) What has prevented the rapid opening up of the Congo region to European civilization and trade? (2) Compare the Congo and the Amazon, in location, climate, products, accessibility. (3) What modern substitute do we have for ivory? (4) Trace a caravan route from Sudan to Tripoli; from Timbuktu to the southern slopes of the Atlas. (5) Draw the chief rivers and locate important caravan and other routes. (6) Show the railroad connections between Lourenço Marques and towns in South Africa. (7) How many independent states are there in central Africa?

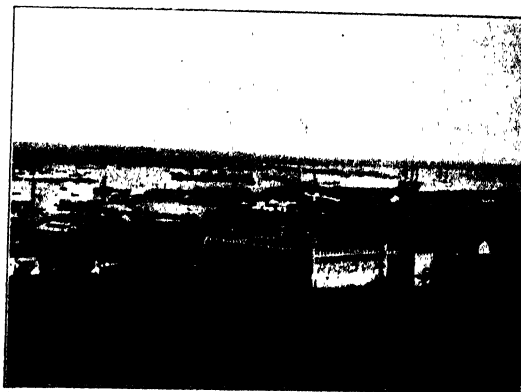


FIG. 493. *A view of Delagoa Bay, the harbor of Lourenço Marques, Portuguese East Africa.*

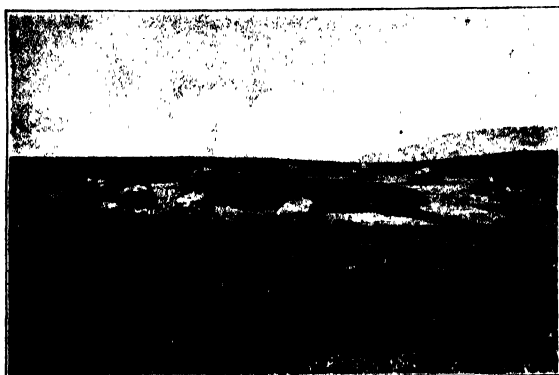


FIG. 494. A native kraal or village in the plateau region of South Africa.

LXVI. SOUTH AFRICA

Climate and Surface. South Africa includes German Southwest Africa, Portuguese East Africa and British South Africa, the northern portion of which really lies in the tropics. The climate of the extreme southern portion of Africa is temperate and in many ways like that of the United Kingdom. The Transvaal, Orange Free State, Natal, and Cape of Good Hope, now form the Union of South Africa. All of these countries have a climate so similar to the climate of the British Isles that the English people have found it easy to adapt themselves to the new conditions.

Throughout southern Africa the highlands extend close to the coast and rise abruptly, so that any moisture-bearing winds lose their moisture quickly and the interior receives little rainfall. (See Fig. 97.)

On the east the Kwathlamba Mountains (Drakenburg) rise close to the coast and slope down on the west to the interior plateaus, which lie at an altitude of about 2,000 feet. They cut off the moisture and the rains brought by the southeast trade

winds, and hence the tablelands of the interior are subject to drought.

In the western portion, lying in the lee of the mountains and plateaus, is the *Kalahari Desert*. In the southwest are tablelands from two to three thousand feet in altitude, rising above the sea in terraces, and known as the *Great* and the *Little Karroo*.

Products of the Soil. Along the eastern and southern coasts of South Africa agriculture is carried on. Cereals, fruits, and tea are the chief products. Some of the fruits are now brought to the United States. Sugar (see Fig. 499) and tobacco are produced in the southeast, but are largely consumed at home.

Stock Raising. Ostriches are raised in the southeast in large numbers for the sake of their feathers. Grazing, however, is the most widespread industry. Sheep are the most important animals, especially in the *Transvaal* and *Orange Free State*. Goats are raised in the harsher climate east of the Great Karroo. Cattle are important on the coast, in the *Transvaal*, and in German South-

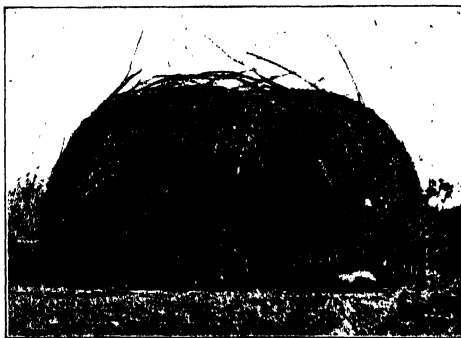
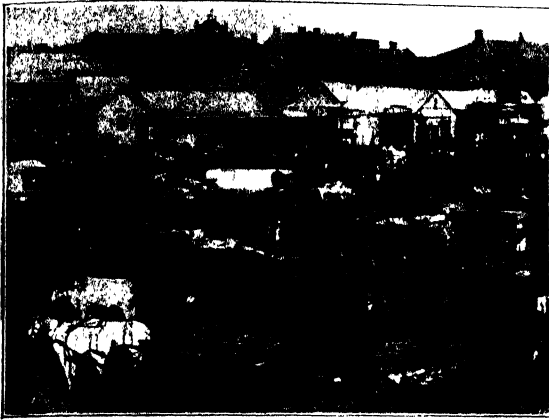


FIG. 495. The framework of a native hut in South Africa.

west Africa, where the surface of the country and the climate favor grazing. (See Fig. 479.)



FIG. 496. The method of traveling across the veldt, as the rolling country of South Africa is called.

FIG. 497. *The market square at Johannesburg.*

Mineral Products. The Transvaal contains unusually rich gold deposits which are extensively worked. It ranks next to Australia and the United States in the production of gold. (See Fig. 498.) *Johannesburg* (see Fig. 497), the chief town, is the leading mining center. *Pretoria*, the capital, is connected with Lourenço Marques by a railroad.

Kimberley lies in the center of extensive diamond fields, and exports more than nine-tenths of the diamonds used in the world.

Trade. Owing to the regular coast line South Africa has few good harbors and even those that can be used are often swept so severely by winds during the southeast trades that shipping is not safe. *Cape Town* (see Fig. 500), *Port Elizabeth*, and *Durban* have good harbors but the best is that of Lourenço Marques on the east coast. (See Fig. 493.) The land rises abruptly, hence the railroads into the interior follow heavy grades, and the cost of transportation is great. (See Fig. 496.)

The commerce of South Africa is practically all with the United Kingdom. Gold is by far the most important export, and diamonds, wool, angora hair, and ostrich feathers are the other chief products in trade. Trade with the United States is unimportant.

Questions and Exercises

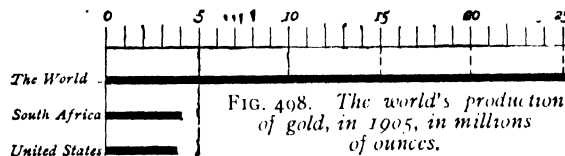
(1) What European nation first settled in South Africa? What names on the map recall this occupation? (2) What attracted the British to this region? (3) In which parts of the country are there rich mineral deposits? Locate two important mining towns. (4) Through what ports are these products sent to England? (5) Make a list of the countries composing British South Africa, and opposite each write the names of the chief towns.

(6) On an outline map of Africa color in red all the British possessions in Africa, in blue all the German possessions, in yellow all the French possessions. (7) What do you notice about the British possessions? (8) Why are these foreign nations so eager for control in Africa? (9) Why are the British so desirous of building a railroad from the Cape to Cairo?

(10) Tell how the surface of South Africa has influenced the distribution of vegetation; the means of communication. (11) Tell why the great lakes of Africa are of less commercial

importance than the Great Lakes of the United States. (12) Show on a map of Africa the trade routes between the commercial countries of Europe and the Suez

Canal. (13) Show the ocean routes between Europe and the East before the construction of the Suez Canal. (14) In what way is South Africa like portions of Australia? (15) Why have British colonies developed rapidly in South Africa? (16) What season of the year is it at Cape Town now? (17) What products have you ever seen that came from South Africa?

FIG. 498. *The world's production of gold, in 1905, in millions of ounces.*FIG. 499. *Cutting sugar cane near Pretoria.*

LXVII. ISLANDS NEAR AFRICA

MADAGASCAR

Surface and Industry. *Madagascar*, a large island lying two hundred and fifty miles south-east of the coast of Africa, belongs to France. It is mountainous throughout, but is well watered and abundantly supplied with grass. Cattle raising is the leading industry. Gold, rubber, cattle, and raffia are the chief exports. The commerce, which is small, is centered at *Tamatave*, the only good port. (See Fig. 501.)

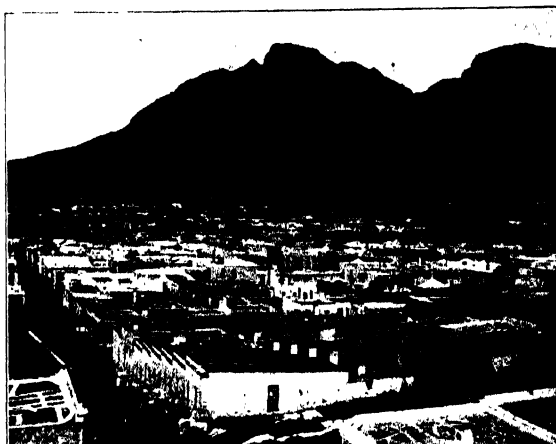


FIG. 500. A general view of Cape Town, South Africa, at the foot of Table Mountain.

MAURITIUS AND RÉUNION

Ownership and Products. *Mauritius*, belonging to the United Kingdom, and *Réunion*, belonging to France, are two small islands east of Madagascar. They are both covered with tropical plantations producing a large amount of sugar. Sugar, therefore, forms the principal export; it is sent especially to India.

ISLANDS OF THE ATLANTIC

Ownership and Products. Of the islands on the west coast of Africa the *Azore*, the *Madeira*, and the *Cape Verde* belong to Portugal. The Azores raise oranges and pineapples, and the Madeiras produce wine and fruit. The Cape Verde Islands are unimportant except that the Island of St. Vincent is a coal-station for Atlantic steamers. The *Canary Islands* belong to Spain and produce early vegetables for the London market. St. Helena,

best known as the place of imprisonment of the great Napoleon, is a British coaling station.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Why is Madagascar an oceanic rather than a continental island? (2) Why is it so well watered? (3) To what European ports do its products go? (4) What two islands are near Madagascar? (5) To what country do they belong? (6) What groups of islands lie west of Africa? (7) For what are they important? (8) To what countries do they belong?

SUMMARY

Africa is the second largest continent, but, owing to its unfavorable climate and the difficulties encountered in travel, it is the least progressive and the least developed. Only the coastal areas of the more temperate regions are occupied by Europeans, and European influence has had but little effect throughout the continent. Its commerce is therefore not very important and amounts to only one-tenth of the commerce of the world. The most progressive regions are in the temperate areas of the south.

The rich tropical regions of central Africa are almost inaccessible and are separated from the ports on the northern coast, that are within easy reach of southern Europe, by a vast desert which is difficult to cross. The inhabitants are largely primitive people,



FIG. 501. A street bazaar, Tamatave, the port of Antananarivo, Madagascar

who live on the natural resources of the country and who contribute little to the world's commerce, except ivory, skins, gums, and other similar products. (See Fig. 492.)

ASIA

LXVIII. THE CONTINENT AS A WHOLE

Size and Position. The continent of Asia is more than twice the size of North America (see Fig. 28); it includes more than one-third the land of the world and more than one-half of the people. It lies entirely in the Northern Hemisphere, but its southern point extends to within ninety miles of the equator, and its northern coast lies half-way between the Arctic Circle and the Pole. (See Fig. 502.) Its most western point in Asia Minor is in the same longitude as Bukarest, and its most eastern extremity almost touches North America at Bering Strait.

The populous countries of Asia are separated from North America by the Pacific Ocean, and from the progressive nations of Europe by the great land mass lying between. (See Fig. 502.) Hence Asia has remained somewhat isolated commercially, and even now but few of its nations have any conspicuous part in the world's trade. The southeastern coast of Asia and the East Indies, however, have long been of interest to all the people of Europe because of their valuable products, which were sought by explorers in early times.

Coast Line. The coast of Asia is bordered by a great number of seas, bays, and gulfs, extending in an unbroken series from Bering Strait on the northeast to the Red Sea on the African boundary. (See Fig. 503.) These

seas, with their protected waters, have always favored the development of coastwise trade except in the north and northeast where the waters are frozen for many months in the year. There are several good harbors on the southern and southeastern coasts which are situated in a favorable climate and are of great commercial importance. The southern peninsulas are broad and fertile and have therefore favored the development of a large population, much

larger and denser than can be accommodated in the smaller peninsulas of southern Europe.

The Great Northern Plain. Asia includes a larger area of plains than any other continent. The great northern plain, which extends from south of the Caspian Sea to Bering Strait, is a continuation of the plain of northern Europe. A large part of this great region lies less than six hundred feet above the level of the sea, and its surface

is but little broken by hills. As a result, there are no barriers to break the force of the winds which sweep across the plains with great force in winter.

The southwestern portion of this plain is, in part, below the level of the sea, and contains a broad area of interior drainage. Here we find several salt lakes and seas, which, from evaporation and other causes, have much decreased in size as compared with the past. They are now only shallow bodies of extremely salt water surrounded by gently sloping shores, the soil of which is full of salt.



FIG. 502. The position of Asia among the continents.



Rivers of the North. The great rivers of the plain, the *Ob-Irtysh*, the *Yenisei*, and the *Leua*, flow northward. Their headwaters, thawing out in the spring before their lower courses have melted at all, pour down an enormous volume of water which floods the country and does great damage. In the middle of the summer these rivers are navigable for several hundred miles, but in winter they are frozen to a great depth.

The Great Central Highland. The greater part of southern Asia consists of a great highland and plateau area, which includes the loftiest peaks of the world. The great mountain ranges which form this highland radiate in all directions from the *Pamirs*, or "roof of the world," as they are often called, which lie in southern Turkistan. The *Hindu Kush* and the *Elburz* mountains extend to the west. The *Tian Shan*, to the east and northeast, are the beginning of the continental divide which separates the long north and west flowing rivers from the shorter streams which flow toward the south and east. This divide includes the *Altai*, *Yablonovoi*, and *Stanovoi* mountains.

South of this divide and east of the *Pamirs* lies the great interior plateau or desert region, *Gobi*, and the higher plateau of *Tibet*, the latter with an average elevation of more than fifteen thousand feet. This plateau area is bounded on the south, as on the north, by high mountains exceedingly difficult of passage, of which the most important ranges are the *Himalayas*, the highest mountains of the world. (See Figs. 503 and 504.) *Mount Everest* in the *Himalayas*, with an altitude of more than five miles, the loftiest peak in the world,

is surrounded by many others nearly as high. Irregular mountain ranges, some of them of considerable altitude, extend out to the east and southeast of the Plateau of Tibet, so that the larger part of eastern and southeastern Asia is mountainous. (See Fig. 509.)

In all this great highland area there is only one low pass and easy line of communication between northern and southern Asia. This lies between the *Hindu Kush* and the *Elburz* mountains. It therefore forms an important highway of commerce between Asia and Europe.

Rivers of the South and East. The great rivers of southern and southeastern Asia rise within the mountain ranges, some of them in the Plateau of Tibet, and break through these great barriers in narrow gorges, which are often difficult of passage. The most important are the *Hwang-ho* and the *Yangtse-kiang* in China, and the *Ganges-Brahmaputra* and the *Indus* in India.

Each of these great streams is navigable for long distances in its lower course and is hence of great importance to the country through which it flows. At certain seasons these streams are crowded with small and large boats engaged in commerce between the coast towns and the interior. The *Ganges* and the *Brahmaputra*, which merge at the head of their delta, drain different portions of the great plain of India. The *Brahmaputra* and the *Indus* form natural highways through the great *Himálayan* range, and are therefore of vast importance to Tibet. (See Fig. 511.)

These rivers, as they flow out toward the sea, carry with them an enormous quantity of detritus which they have removed from near their headwaters. This detritus has been



FIG. 504. In the mountainous region of the *Himalayas* in Tibet

deposited along their courses for centuries, until the rivers have built up great alluvial plains with gentle slopes and fine, well-watered soil.

With the exception of the *Amur* (see Fig. 508), which flows to the northeast into a sea frozen in winter, and the *Tigris* and *Euphrates*, which lie in an equally unfavorable dry region, all these river valleys are areas of dense population. They are the seats of some of the oldest civilizations in the world.

The Tablelands of the South. The two great southern peninsulas of Asia, *India* and *Arabia* are high tablelands, and each is separated by a low river valley from the main mass of the continent to the north. (See Fig. 503.)

The peninsula of lower India, known as *The Deccan*, is highest to the west, where the tableland rises in mountain-like peaks known as the *Western Ghats*. (See Fig. 503.)

The long rivers, therefore, flow to the east toward the Bay of Bengal. The tableland on this side is low and faces the ocean in a ridge, known as the *Eastern Ghats*.

The tableland of Arabia, forming the greatest peninsula in the world, is high in the south and lower in the north. Lying in the heart of a great desert region, it has no rivers and is of little commercial importance. Therefore it is strikingly contrasted with the somewhat smaller peninsulas of India and Indo-China which lie in a climate favorable for dense occupation.

The Islands. Bordering Asia on the east and south is a great series of islands. Many of them are of volcanic origin, and some still contain active volcanoes. They are a part

of the great volcanic rim that surrounds the Pacific Ocean. (See Fig. 69.) From Yezo southward the islands are populous and, with the introduction of European and American methods, are increasing in importance commercially.

Climate. The continent of Asia, owing to its size, has the most strongly marked continental climate in the world. Because of its great extent in latitude, the temperature ranges from the most extreme cold in the north to the excessive heat of the tropics. (See Fig. 74.) There is also a great variation in temperature in the highland areas, according to the elevation. The peaks of the *Himálayas* rise far above the snow line, while their foothills are covered with tropical vegetation.

The great plains and plateaus of the interior of Asia are centers from which strong winter winds blow outward, carrying cold

toward the oceans. (See Fig. 82.) They are therefore very cold and dry at that season. Near the little town of *Verkhoyansk* in north-eastern Siberia the average January temperature is 60 degrees below zero, and temperatures more than 90 degrees below zero have been recorded. This region is the coldest known place in the world, and is called the *Cold Pole*.

In summer, when the great interior region is warmed by the strong rays of the sun which penetrate the dry air, the temperature rises so that the average July temperature in places in the northern plain is more than 95 degrees Fahrenheit. (See Fig. 84.) The summer winds, blowing from the cooler ocean toward the land, are for that reason damper than those of winter, so that in summer the



FIG. 505. Transportation in the cold regions of central Asia.

interior of the continent gets a little more moisture than in winter.

On the southeast and southern coasts the winds change with the season, and are therefore *monsoons*. In summer the southeast and southwest trade winds, blowing in toward the Heat Equator, which at that time has advanced to its most extreme northern position, carry an abundance of moisture toward the interior plains of the south. At this season the climate of the southern lowlands is exceedingly disagreeable for white people and therefore the residents of the cities move to the higher hills, if possible. As the air rises it cools rapidly and excessive rainfall ensues. (See Fig. 97.) The town of *Cherra Punji*, in the southern foothills of the *Himálayas*, is so peculiarly situated that it has an average annual rainfall of over four hundred and ninety inches, or more than forty feet, the greatest rainfall known in the world. An amount of precipitation nearly as great as the average annual rainfall of New York City, which is over forty-four inches, has been known to fall in *Cherra Punji* in one day.

During the winter the southern and southeastern coastal areas are swept by the fair, cooling northerly trade winds, and therefore have an agreeable climate at that season.

Vegetation. The distribution of vegetation follows closely the distribution of heat and moisture. Along the northern coast is the great *tundra* belt, covered with mosses and lichens and with low bushes which bear berries during the brief summer season. On the south the tundra area merges into the evergreen forests with their larches and firs, the great hunting ground of northern Asia.

(See Figs. 119 and 506.) South of the forest area is an arable region in which agriculture is now beginning to be carried on. (See Fig. 511.)

The lowland area around the Caspian Sea and Lake of Aral is a *steppe*, extending as far east as the river *Ob*. Along the coast of the Mediterranean the vegetation is similar to that in the Mediterranean region of Europe; that is, it is subtropical in its character.

The high mountains are everywhere snow-covered. The great interior plateaus of Gobi and Tibet and the tablelands of Arabia are, because of their position, part of the great

desert region of the world, which extends across Africa and Asia from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific.

The lowland plains of southern and southeastern Asia are swept by monsoons and have an abundance of vegetation of a tropical and subtropical nature, owing to the warmth, moisture, and sunshine

which abound there. In the extreme southern portion, where the conditions are tropical, jungles nearly as dense as the tropical forests of Africa and South America exist. (See Fig. 119.) The tableland of The Deccan is a great *savanna* area in which agriculture flourishes.

Animals. The animals of northern Asia are similar to those of northern Europe, because there is no mountain barrier to prevent the animals from wandering readily over the great plain area of these two continents. The animals of southeastern Asia are separated from the animals of the north by the great highland barrier over which they cannot readily migrate. Hence they are grouped by themselves to form the animal realm known as the Oriental Region. (See page 75.)



FIG. 506. In the hunting ground of northern Asia where forests of fir abound.

The most important wild animals of the northern tundra and forests are the reindeer, which has been domesticated, and the fur-bearing animals, which yield a large portion of the furs of the world. Throughout this area, wherever occupied, and in southeastern Asia, horses, asses, and cattle have been introduced; camels, sheep, and goats are found in great numbers in the steppe regions.

The yak has been domesticated and is extensively used as a beast of burden in the highlands of Tibet. The buffalo and the elephant have been domesticated in India, and are the only animals of the Oriental Region of any special value to man. (See Figs. 149 and 507.)

People. More than five-sixths of the vast population of Asia are found in the monsoon area, particularly in India and China. The favorable climate and the abundant vegetation in these regions enable large numbers of people to secure the necessities of life from a small territory.

The areas swept by monsoons are the most densely inhabited regions of the world, with the exception of small districts in certain large cities. The plains and highlands are almost the least thickly inhabited regions.

Three-fourths of the people of Asia belong to the yellow race, and the remainder to the white race. The white race includes the Jews, Syrians, Arabs, Hindus, and Persians. (See Figs. 518 and 519.) With the exception of the Europeans who have come into Siberia in recent years, the white race is mostly found in the southwest and south.

The yellow people are extremely varied in their characteristics and in their language. Taken as a whole they are backward in their

development. The people of Japan are active, enterprising, and progressive, but their kindred of the yellow race in northern Siberia are extremely unprogressive. Nations like the Chinese, who reverence the old and dislike the new, who are conservative and self-satisfied, and have merely tolerated the presence of Europeans, have not profited from their contact with modern civilization. Other countries, like Japan, in which European customs have been adopted, or in which foreigners have been welcomed with a view to improving methods of production and trade, have made rapid advances in recent years.

The same is true of India and other countries to which European colonists have gone in large numbers.



FIG. 507. *An elephant taking up a teak log in the lumbering district of Indo-China.*

Questions and Exercises

- (1) On an outline map of Asia, write the names of the surrounding oceans and their arms; also the names of the continental islands.
- (2) On the right-hand margin of the map write the approximate latitude of Canton and Vladivostok.
- (3) What towns in North America are in approximately the same latitude?
- (4) Write the name of a port on each indentation; the name of the chief town on each large island.
- (5) When it is noon at Tokyo what time is it at Khiva?
- (6) Draw the meridians of these towns and write the time at each place.
- (7) Write in two columns the harbors of the south and east coasts.
- (8) Take a sheet of paper the size of the map of Asia and draw a triangle or whatever form best represents to you the general shape of the highland region of Asia.
- (9) Color this a light brown and draw as accurately as you can the courses of the great streams which radiate from this highland.
- (10) Write the names of the rivers and draw the Arctic Circle and the Tropic of Cancer on this diagram.
- (11) Make a list of the rivers, grouping them according as they empty into the Arctic, Pacific, or Indian ocean.
- (12) Which do not reach the sea?

(13) Which great mountain ranges are crossed by rivers? (14) Which form divides? (15) Which rivers are building large flood plains? (16) How has this fact affected settlement? (17) What are the difficulties in passing from the coast into the interior by water? (18) What two rivers of China help to open up the interior to settlement? (See Fig. 503.) (19) What river valleys separate each of the southern peninsulas of Asia from the main continent? (20) Why is Arabia of less importance than India?

(21) On an outline map locate Yakutsk, Irkutsk, Khiva, Tokyo, Vladivostok, Peking, Calcutta, Singapore, and Jerusalem. (22) Write the January temperatures in one column and the July temperatures in another. (23) Which city has the greatest range of temperature? The least?

(24) Why is Peking warmer than Tokyo in summer? Compare their winter temperatures. Explain. (25) Why is Lisbon cooler in summer than Peking? (26) Draw the January isotherms for zero degrees and forty degrees in one color and the July isotherms of fifty degrees and eighty degrees in another. (27) Describe the winter climate of Peking.



FIG. 508 A village on the Amur River, Siberia. This region has long, severe winters and short, hot summers.

has a deep, rich soil. The divide between the Ob-Irtysh and the Yenisei is almost imperceptible. East of the Yenisei the country is stony and rolling, with frequent exposures of the underlying rocks. The northeast has a varied surface; the country is rolling and in many cases extremely rough.

Climate. The winters of Siberia are long, extremely cold, and very dry; the severity of the winter increases from the west to the northeast. (See Fig. 82.) The summers are short and hot, with sufficient moisture for successful agriculture in the west-central portion. The spring comes on suddenly; oftentimes not

more than two weeks of spring weather intervene between the cold of winter and the hot summer with its abundant vegetation.

Western Siberia has a climate similar to that of northwestern Canada, though on the whole more favorable for agriculture. The

rainfall is so slight that large areas of the country are often subjected to drought. The crops then fail and destitution follows.

Products of the Soil. The chief agricultural products of Siberia are wheat, rye, and oats, which are particularly adapted to cool climates where the summers are short. Owing to the ignorance of the farmers agriculture has been extremely backward for a long time, but now it is rapidly improving. The farmers are learning to make use of modern agricultural implements, and the new Trans-Siberian Railroad is giving an outlet for the products. At present agriculture is carried on in the steppe region as far as 62 degrees north latitude. (See Fig. 511.)

So far as timber products are concerned, the immense forests of Siberia are not of any particular commercial value on account

LXIX. RUSSIA IN ASIA

SIBERIA

Area and Population. The Asiatic portion of the Russian Empire which includes *Siberia*, *Turkistan*, and *Caucasia* (see Fig. 509) has an area greater than that of all Europe, but a population less than that of Belgium. The population is, in part, composed of peasants and of criminals who have been deported from Russia. The larger portion of the people is found in the western part of the country, especially in the valley of the Ob-Irtysh River. The population is increasing in the valleys of the other larger rivers and along the line of the Trans-Siberian Railroad.

Surface. West of the Yenisei River, Siberia is flat and marshy, contains many lakes, and

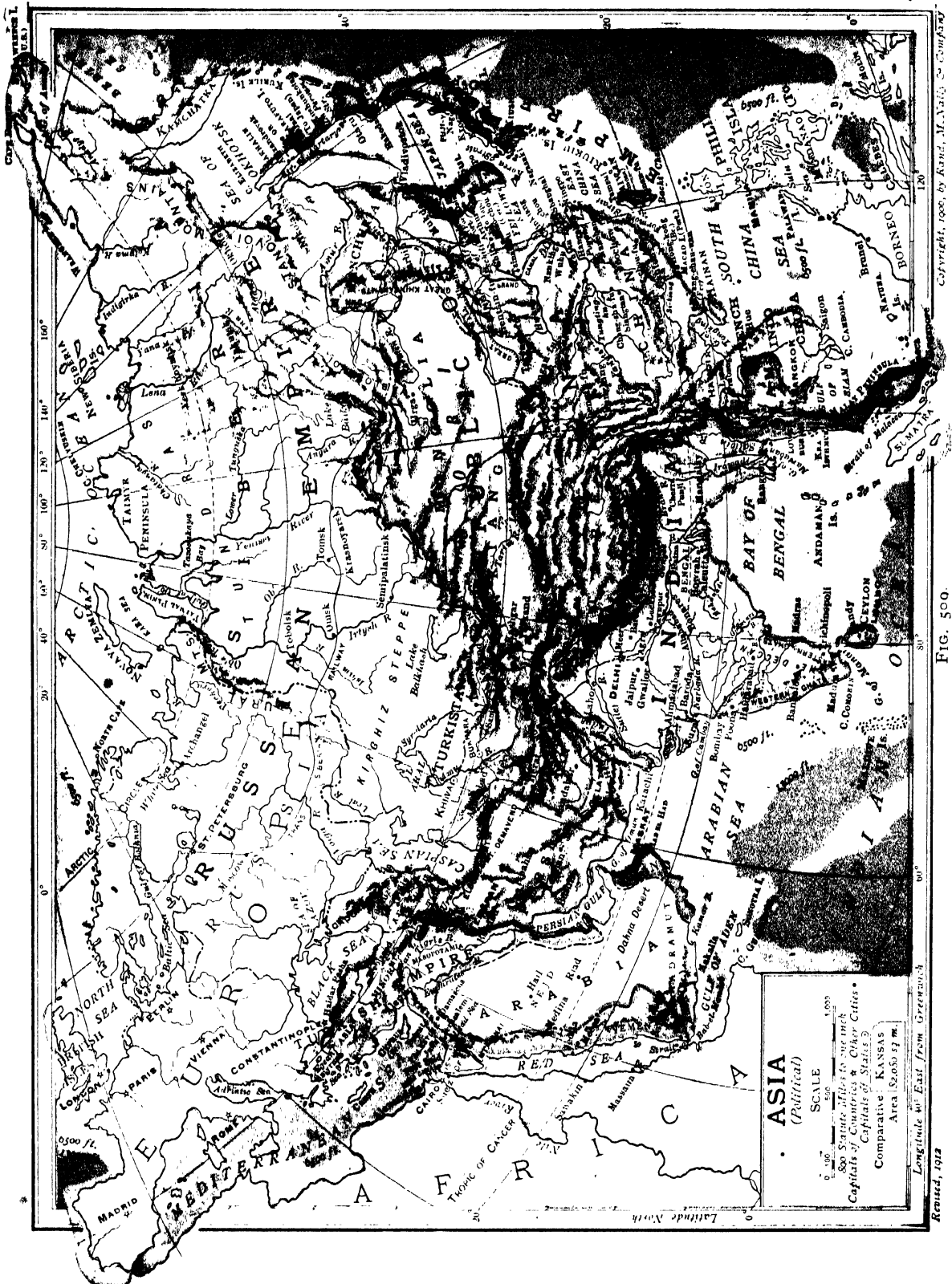


FIG. 500.

of the lack of transportation facilities. The forests are of great importance, however, because of the furs sent from them to the leading fur markets of the world, and especially to Leipzig. (See Fig. 511.)

The only product of the tundra area which is of any commercial importance is the ivory secured from the buried remains of the great hairy mammoth which formerly lived in this region. The supply, however, is being rapidly exhausted, so that the tundra gives no promise of furnishing valuable products indefinitely. (See Fig. 511.)

Mineral Products.

Mineral products in some abundance are found scattered through the country. The most important are gold and silver. Gold is found in the river gravels and silver is secured from the Altai Mountains. (See Fig. 511.)

Coal, iron, lead, and copper are also found, but the coal is poor, and none of these mineral products has been developed so as to be of any considerable commercial value.

Trade. Siberia is unfavorably situated for carrying on trade. It has no open harbors except in the summer; it has no canals, few good roads, and only one great railroad; its navigable rivers are icebound the greater part of the year.

The Trans-Siberian Railway, finished in 1902, connects Russia in Europe with Vladivostok (see Figs. 510 and 511), on the Japan Sea, giving Siberia and Russia access to the Pacific Ocean. The distance by rail from St. Petersburg to Vladivostok is about 5,633 miles. Passenger trains cover the distance in about two weeks; freight trains require a

longer time. More than one-half the freight carried over this road is grain; the rest is largely animal products and tea. Tea is transported over the land westward from Asia to Europe because it has been found that "overland" tea is superior to tea carried by water. During a sea voyage tea absorbs moisture and loses its flavor.

The only towns of any considerable size in Siberia are *Tomsk* and *Irkutsk*, both of which have a population of more than fifty thousand and are centers for the local government.

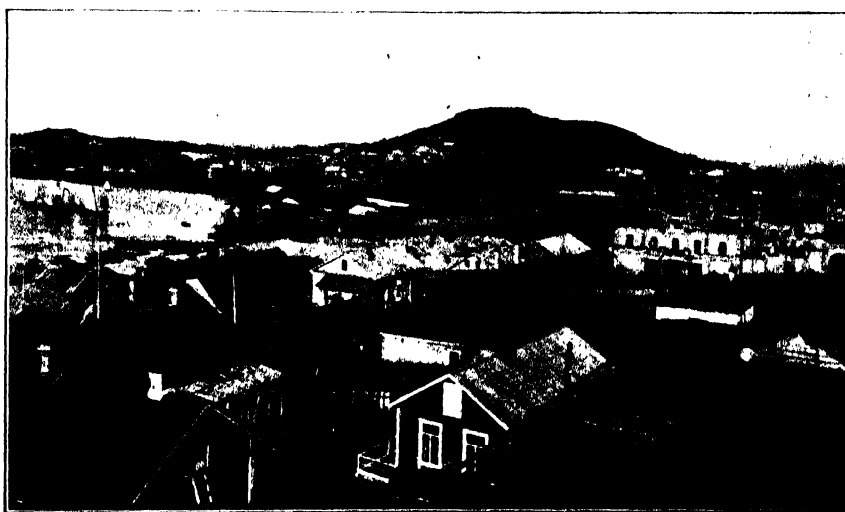


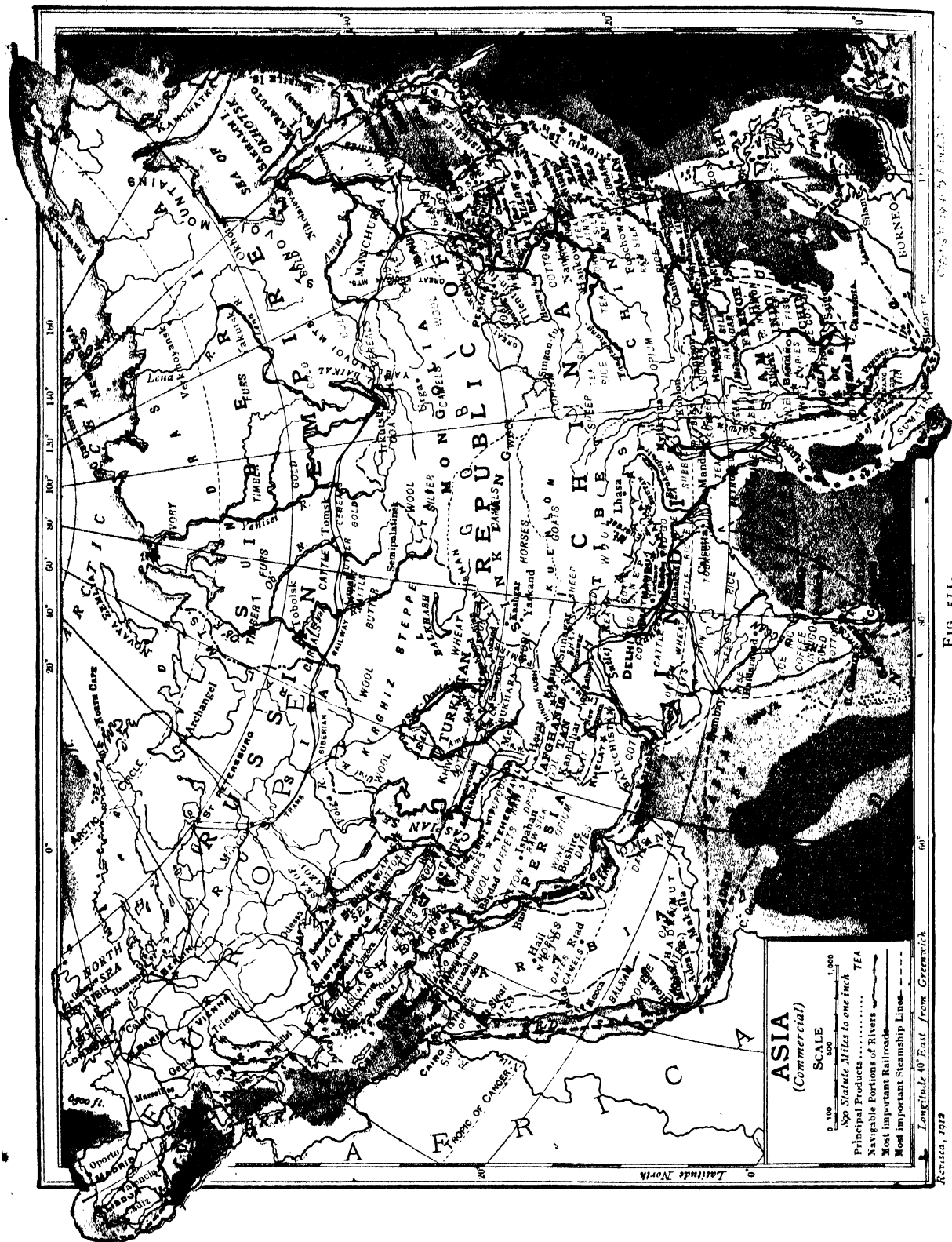
FIG. 510. Vladivostok, the terminus of the great Trans-Siberian Railway.

TURKISTAN

Situation and Surface. Turkistan lies to the west of China and north of India, Afghanistan, and Persia. Its surface, consisting of plains in eastern Turkistan and of high plateaus in the Pamirs, is very rugged. Most of the country, owing to its position, is either a desert or a steppe. The population therefore is extremely scanty, and the chief occupation is grazing.

Products; Cities. The products of Turkistan are not specially important. Millet, maize, rice (see Fig. 512), and flax are raised under irrigation, largely for home consumption, and some cotton is raised for export.

The only towns of any size are irrigated



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oases like *Merv*, *Khiva*, *Bukhara*, *Samarkand*, and *Tashkend*. These centers are connected by a railroad; it is the only one in this portion of the country, and is therefore of considerable importance. In time of war or of threatened trouble, Russia could quickly transport a large force to the Afghanistan frontier of India by means of this railroad.

CAUCASIA

Situation and Surface. Caucasia includes land on both sides of the Caucasus Mountains. It is a country of mountains and tablelands, with rich valleys lying between.

Products. The climate and soil of the valleys favor grapes, corn, and cotton.

Petroleum and manganese are found in large quantities, and are the chief natural resources of the region. In fact, Caucasia furnishes more than one-third of the world's supply of petroleum. (See Figs. 511 and 513.)

Cities. *Tiflis* is the principal town, but *Baku*, in the Caspian petroleum field, is rapidly pushing to the front on account of the development of the oil industry. Both cities are situated in the great valley between the two chief ranges of the Caucasus Mountains. From the earliest times this valley has been the great highway of commerce between the Caspian Sea and the Black Sea. It is now traversed by a railroad which connects at *Baku* with another line extending from central Russia round the eastern end of the mountain system. (See Fig. 511.)



FIG. 512. Breaking rice in southern Turkistan

- Questions and Exercises**
- (1) On an outline map write the chief products of Siberia.
 - (2) Draw the Trans-Siberian Railway and locate chief towns on the road.
 - (3) Write the names of the chief products carried by the road.
 - (4) Tell something which you have read at home about life in Siberia.
 - (5) Locate the railroad which connects *Baku* with *Tashkend* and name the cities on the line.
 - (6) Of what importance to Russia is this road?
 - (7) How does oil from *Baku* reach *St. Petersburg*?
 - (8) Where are the irrigated portions of Turkistan? The grazing regions?
 - (9) Why are *Lake Aral* and the *Caspian Sea* salt?
 - (10) Mention features of this region similar to those of the Great Basin in North America.
 - (11) Why do the streams flowing into *Lake Aral* come from the east?
 - (12) What time is it at *Khiva* when it is noon at Greenwich?
 - (13) Compare the latitude of *Khiva* with that of *Salt Lake City, Utah*.

LXX. ASIATIC TURKEY

Surface and Climate. Asiatic Turkey includes *Asia Minor*, *Mesopotamia*, *Syria*, and *Palestine*, and wide strips of coast in Arabia. (See Fig. 509.) A large part of the area is a tableland three thousand feet high. The

only important lowland is the *Tigris-Euphrates* valley, forming what is known as *Mesopotamia*. Owing to the

location the rainfall of the region is scanty except on the hill slopes facing the sea. The air is clear and dry, hence the daily and the annual range of temperature is great. The desert-like character of much of the country confines the people to pastoral occupations except in the irrigated regions.

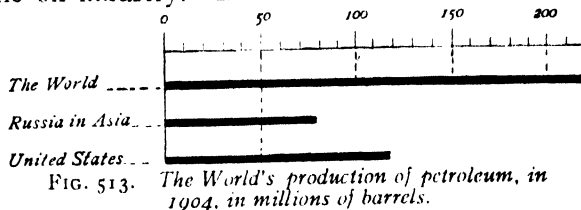


FIG. 513. The World's production of petroleum, in 1904, in millions of barrels.

ASIA MINOR

Products. Asia Minor is mostly arid, but along the coast, where irrigation is carried on, crops peculiar to the shores of the Mediterranean are raised. The character of these is indicated by the exports from *Smyrna*, the chief town. These exports, in the order of their commercial value, are raisins, cotton, opium, figs, barley, licorice, carpets, wool, and sponges.

Sponges are secured from the Ægean Sea, and the wool is mainly from the Angora goats. Oranges, which thrive in similar latitudes elsewhere, are not produced here in any quantity, owing to the severity of the winters.

Transportation and Trade. Asia Minor has but few good highways, although it contains the remains of many fine old roads built in the time of the Romans. Railroads are now being built, and in the course of time there will probably be a complete line from Haidar Pasha, opposite Constantinople, to the Persian Gulf. This railroad will undoubtedly be of great strategic and commercial importance when the country along its route is developed and becomes so rich that the great nations will join in its protection, as they have joined in the protection of China.

At the present time most of the interior transportation is carried on by means of horses and cattle. *Trebizond*, a port of increasing importance on the Black Sea, is



FIG. 514. A view of the Jordan River, Palestine. Shepherds crossing the river with their flocks.

the terminus of an important caravan route through Mesopotamia and northern Persia.

SYRIA AND PALESTINE

Surface and Climate. Syria is a country of great historic and religious interest. It consists of a narrow coastal plain, somewhat wider to the south than to the north, and bordered on the east by two abrupt ranges of mountains. These mountains are covered with forests, and between them lies the wonderful depression containing the *Jordan River* (see Fig. 514) and the *Dead Sea*.

The Dead Sea is 1,290 feet below sea level and its waters are very salt. The climate of this depression is warm and dry, indeed almost tropical in summer.

East of the mountain ranges is a high plateau which extends into Arabia. With the

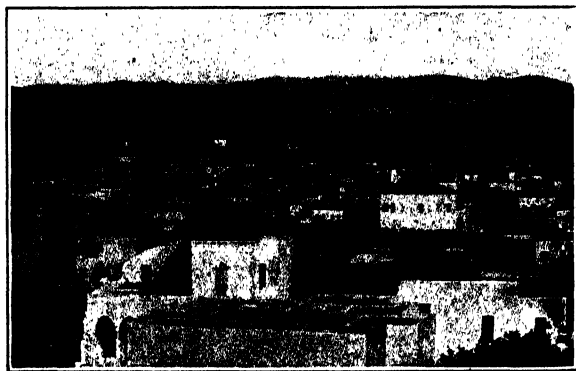


FIG. 515. The city of Beirut.

exception of the irrigated portions and the fertile plains of the Mediterranean coast, Syria is generally dry. (See Fig. 97.) On the great plateaus of eastern Syria grazing is carried on, not only as extensively, but in practically the same way as in the time of Christ.

Products. The chief products of Syria are silk, tobacco, and oranges. Soap-making is a local industry in certain regions. The soap oil is made from olives, and the soda required in the process comes from certain plants which grow in the salty soil.

Cities. *Beirut*, connected by rail with *Damascus* (see Figs. 515 and 516), is the chief

port of Syria. Damascus produces cloth, leather, and inlaid work, noted for centuries for their fine quality. It is important historically and is the terminus of caravan routes from Arabia and the East.

Jaffa is the port of *Jerusalem*, and is connected with that ancient city by a railroad. The whole country is of great interest to all who profess the Christian, Jewish, or Mohammedan religions, and Jerusalem in particular is a holy city to all these sects.

ARABIA

Surface and Climate. The great desert table-land of Arabia receives rain only in the southwest in the province of Yemen, and in the southeast in the independent state of Oman. These two places have a limited rainfall in spring and autumn, and certain crops can be grown, of which the leading ones are coffee, subtropical fruits, and vegetables.

Products; Cities. The interior of Arabia is of some importance because of the horses, camels, and dates which are produced there. Arabian horses are known the world over for their beauty and intelligence.

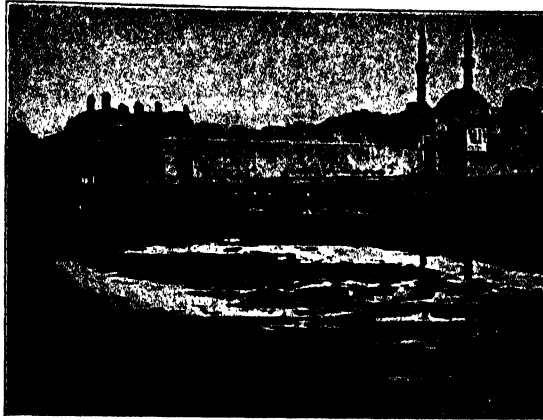


FIG. 516. *Damascus. A stopping place for pilgrims on the way to Mecca.*

The principal city of Arabia is *Mecca*, near the west coast. Mecca is the birth-place of Mohammed and the holy city to all Mohammedans, every one of whom during his life must make at least one pilgrimage to the sacred temple there.

In the extreme southwest of Arabia on

the Gulf of Aden is the British port of *Aden*, which controls the narrow and important southern approach to the Red Sea. (See Figs. 511 and 517.) It is one of the strategic points guarding the United Kingdom's sea route to India. The fortifications at Aden are built in an extinct volcanic crater, the rim of which is more than 1,700 feet above the sea. The country roundabout does not produce sufficient food for the garrison and furnishes no firewood, so that both these necessities have to be imported. Water for drinking is secured by distilling the sea water.

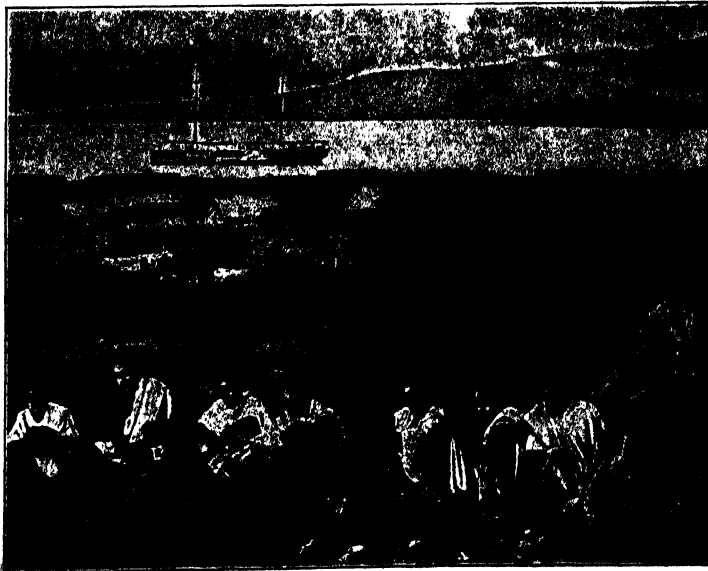


FIG. 517. *The harbor and native city of Aden, with a group of natives in characteristic posture.*

MESOPOTAMIA

Soil and Climate. Owing to the general use of irrigation, the low-lying plain of Mesopotamia was formerly very rich, but the government of this region, like that of most of Asia Minor, has been so poor that the prosperity of the

country has been allowed to decline. The climate is so very hot that in summer the people live in underground chambers, which are much cooler than houses would be.

Products; Cities. The only products for export are cereals, dates, wool, gum, and hides. Mules and camels are raised in great numbers. Many of the products of subtropical countries which might be produced at home are imported. Inland communication is carried on by means of camels and river boats.

Bagdad, at the head of navigation on the Tigris, is the chief town, but is not so important as it formerly was. It is on the line of the proposed railroad to the Persian Gulf, and will recover its lost position when that road is built.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Where are the lowlands of Asiatic Turkey? (2) Which is below sea level? (3) Point out the mountain slopes which receive the most rain. (4) What kind of a coast line has Asia Minor? Syria? Arabia? (5) Which is best situated for carrying on commerce? (6) What mountain peak in the northern part of Asia Minor? In the peninsula of Suez? (7) For what is the latter famous? (8) To what country does it belong?

(9) Write the following cities in one column, their location in a second, and in a third some fact, either geographical or historical: Smyrna, Jerusalem, Damascus, Mecca, Bagdad. (10) What river in Asia Minor has given us a name, now applied to all similar streams? (11) Why is the possession of Aden important to the United Kingdom? (12) What other fortress does the United Kingdom control on the same great trade route? (13) Mention as many reasons as you can why Asia Minor and Syria are unprogressive.

LXXI. PERSIA, AFGHANISTAN, AND BALUCHISTAN

PERSIA

Surface and Climate. Persia, a country as large as France, England, and Germany, occupies the *Plateau of Iran*. Owing to its position and surface, it is very dry, except on the mountains, where some rain and snow fall in winter.

Products and Trade. In the valleys and along the Caspian Sea, the only fertile regions, cereals and fruits are grown. Products of

value in addition to these are carpets, rugs, and shawls made from the wool of the mountain sheep and goats, and brass work. These products, together with opium, raw silk, cotton, and horses, are sent in trade to Europe, and especially to Russia.

Commerce is

carried on by boats over the Caspian Sea and by caravan to Trebizond. The leading imports are calico and cotton cloth—the characteristic imports of hot regions in which manufacturing is not well developed and which therefore are dependent upon other more favored countries for many of the necessities of life.

AFGHANISTAN AND BALUCHISTAN

Surface and Climate. Afghanistan is a mountainous country, rising above the Plateau of Iran and extending to the great highlands of the Pamirs. (See Fig. 509.) Owing to its altitude and location, the climate, like that of the rest of western Asia, is dry. In the lower valleys, however, some agriculture is carried on.

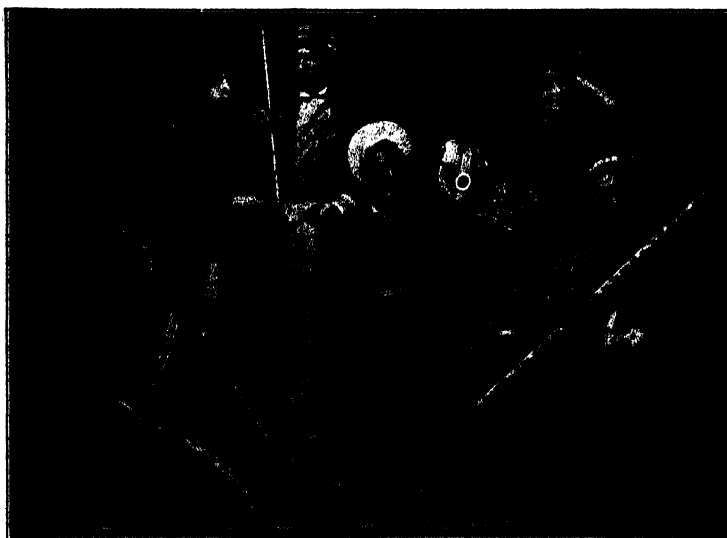


FIG. 518. A group of Bedouins, or nomadic Arabians.

Baluchistan is an arid, unproductive region under the control of the British government. It is mostly made up of tablelands.

Products and Trade. Where the climate is favorable, as it is in the valleys, cereals, apples, and the vine are grown. Cattle, goats, and camels are raised in the colder, higher altitudes. The only trade route of any significance is from *Herat* to the Caspian Sea, although the caravan route through the *Khaibar Pass* is of some importance on account of the overland trade with India.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Why do Persia, Afghanistan, and Baluchistan receive so little rain? (2) What influence does the mountain rim around the Iran Plateau have upon its rainfall? (3) Trace the trade route from Trebizond to India. (4) Why is this route important? (5) To what European country would its possession be of immense advantage? (6) For what products is Persia best known in America?

LXXII. INDIA

Position and Population. The Empire of India, one of the most important colonies of the British Empire, occupies the great peninsula of southern Asia and extends on the north to the Himalayas. (See Fig. 509.) It is nearly one-half as large as Europe, and contains approximately one-fifth of the people of the world. Its population is mostly of the white race, either Hindus or Europeans, but the English language is spoken by few except those from Europe. The Hindus (see Fig. 525)

are divided among many races, and speak more than a hundred different languages.

Surface and Drainage. India is bounded on the northwest, north, and northeast by tablelands or very high mountains. (See Figs. 503 and 520.) The peninsula portion is a plateau or tableland, varying in altitude from 2,500 to 1,500 feet, with a narrow coastal plain bordering the Eastern Ghats.

The tableland is separated from the foothills of the high mountains of northern India by the great plain occupied by the *Indus* and

the *Ganges-Brahmaputra*. This plain is from 150 to 300 miles wide, and contains the densest population and the most important commercial districts of southern Asia.

Coast Line.

The coast line of India is very regular, and consequently

permits of few good harbors except for a distance up the rivers or behind a sheltering barrier of islands, as at Bombay. The southern portion of the western coast is bordered by barrier beaches and lagoons which are of great importance in commerce for the protection they offer to vessels during the season when the southwest monsoon causes high breakers on the shore.

Climate. The climate of India is that always found in a district swept by monsoons. In winter from November to February, when the northern trade winds blow, the climate is dry and cool. In the rainy season, lasting from June to October, when the southern trade winds prevail, the climate



FIG. 519. A group of dancing Dervishes in Persia.

is warm and extremely wet. Before the beginning of the rainy season, and yet after the influence of the spring sun has begun to be felt, from March to May, the climate is hot.

The rainfall is heaviest in the *Western Ghats*, on the Khasi hills about Cherra Punji and the hills of *Upper Burma*, and in the delta of the *Ganges*. The rain in the rainy season comes in bursts; an enormous downpour often falls in but a few minutes. In the moist, warm region of the lower Ganges,

northeasterly trade winds, crossing the Bay of Bengal, carry moisture to the land.

Canals and Irrigation. Throughout India, except in the lower Ganges and in the upper stretches of the rivers of The Deccan, extensive canals have been built to carry water from the rivers to the land where it may be used for irrigation. In 1901 there were more than 42,000 miles of these canals in India, many of which are also important as routes of trade. On The Deccan and in the plains

about Madras the rain of the rainy season is caught in tanks which have been built in the ground, and is used for irrigation during the dry season.

Vegetation. Every form of vegetation, from the desert flora of the northwest to the tropical jungle growth of the extreme southeast, is found in India. (See Figs. 119 and 521.)

The plains are practically treeless, but

they support a heavy vegetation. In the foothills of the Himalayas are forests of oak which merge into rhododendron thickets in the higher altitudes. On the still higher slopes are immense coniferous forests, while above 19,000 feet glaciers and permanent snow prevail. The principal lumber product of value is the teakwood, a very hard and durable timber found in the forests of The Deccan. (See Fig. 511.)

Products of the Soil. Owing to the favorable climatic conditions and to the richness of the soil in the great plains and on The Deccan, agriculture is the leading occupation of the people of India. (See Fig. 511.) In

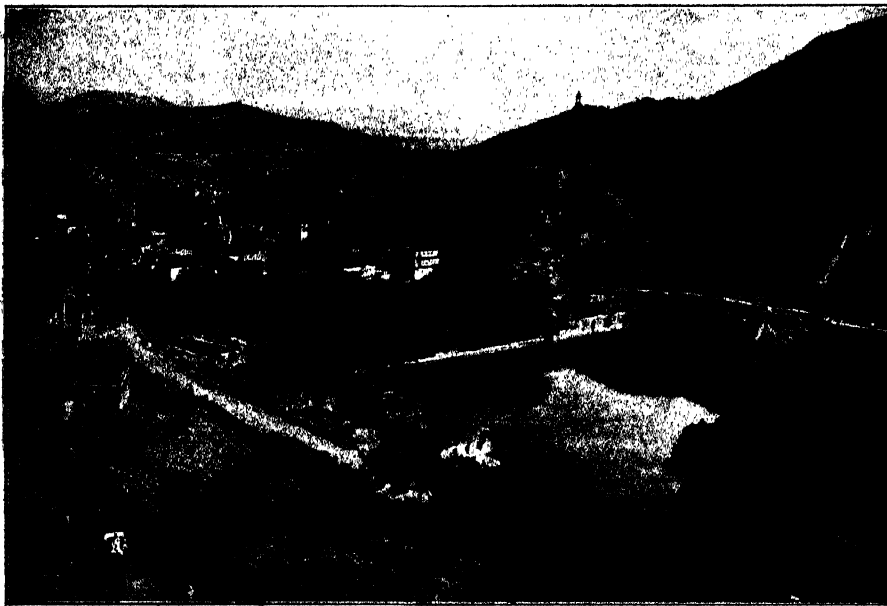


FIG. 520. A town near Jaipur, India. The mountainous region of the high plateau is shown.

where the climate favors a rapid growth of vegetation, the population is more than four hundred to the square mile; that is, as dense as is the population in Rhode Island, the most densely populated state in the Union.

The valley of the Indus is almost rainless, owing to the fact that the southwestern trade winds have passed over so small an area of water that they have not become sufficiently saturated to produce rain when they strike the warm lowland. When the rainfall is deficient in this region, crops fail and famine ensues. The rainfall in the Eastern Ghats is about a third or a fourth of that of northern India, and comes in the cool season when the



FIG. 521. A road cut through a banyan tree along the Ganges River, India, showing the luxuriant vegetation.

the irrigated regions two crops a year are harvested, one in October and one between January and March. Northwestern India, which has a winter climate as cool as southern Europe in summer, raises wheat and barley. Most of the crop is consumed at home, though some of it is exported at times.

The most important crops of India are rice, wheat, millet, and other cereals, and oil seeds, like linseed, castor beans, and mustard, and tobacco, and jute. Opium is produced abundantly in central India, and cotton is raised on the black lava soil of The Deccan. In the flooded lowland districts rice is the leading crop; it forms the principal food of the people of that region, yet ranks third among exports. Tea is one of the principal crops of the foothills of the Himálayas and of southwestern India, and indigo is raised in the Ganges valley and in the eastern lowlands. (See Figs. 511, 522, 523, 524, 582, and 584.)

Minerals. India is rich in minerals, especially coal, iron, copper, and gold, but the

coal is poor and the smelting of iron is therefore costly. Hence the minerals are but little worked. Salt is produced by evaporating the water of the lakes of the interior regions of the west; it also occurs in the form of rock salt in northwestern India.

Manufacturing. India was formerly famous for the weaving of fine silks, muslins, shawls, carpets, and rugs, also for its ivory, gold, silver, and copper articles. These goods are still produced, but owing to the introduction of modern machinery and cheap dyes, and to certain other conditions, the quality is not so good as it once was.

The only manufactures of any importance are cotton, paper, and jute. Bengal and Bombay are the manufacturing localities.

Trade, Cities. India has an immense trade, especially with the United Kingdom, its sovereign country. It is more than a third of the trade of the whole continent. (See Fig. 526.) The chief

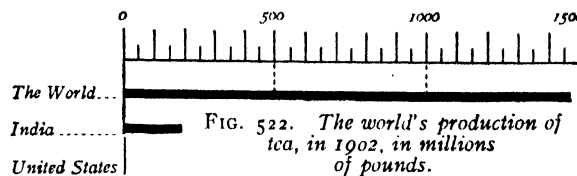


FIG. 522. The world's production of tea, in 1902, in millions of pounds.

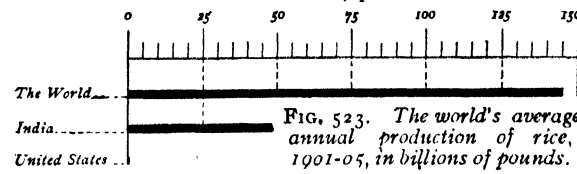


FIG. 523. The world's average annual production of rice, 1901-05, in billions of pounds.

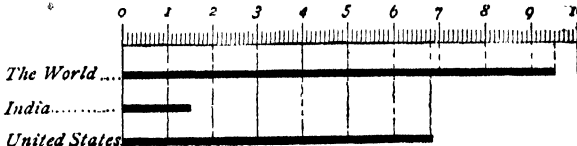


FIG. 524. The world's production of cotton, in 1905, in billions of pounds.

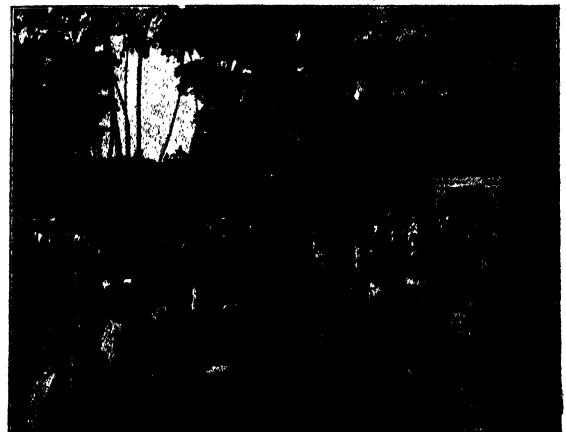


FIG. 525. Hindu pilgrims at a bathing place on one of the sacred streams. The picture shows a religious ceremony.

exports to the United Kingdom are tea, wheat, jute, oil seeds, rice, cotton, and indigo.

Opium is sent to China. The imports are largely provisions and manufactured goods, such as cottons, yarns, and machinery. Foreign trade is centered chiefly at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, and Karachi.

Calcutta, on the Ganges, is situated lower down the stream than the earlier ports which

cannot be used by large vessels during the southwest monsoon. It has ready access to the wheat-producing country, and hence has an important trade.

Madras, also with an artificial harbor,

lies in the midst of the rich plains of lower India, and is the fourth in rank among the ports of that country.

Of the interior towns, Srinagar, in the beautiful valley of Kashmir, is the most important. Through this town pass the shawls, wool, borax, and precious metals of the northwestern province, destined for India. It also has an important trade with East Turkistan, carried on by caravans (see Fig. 505) over the Karakoram Pass at an altitude of 18,500 feet, the highest pass in the world occupied as a trade route.

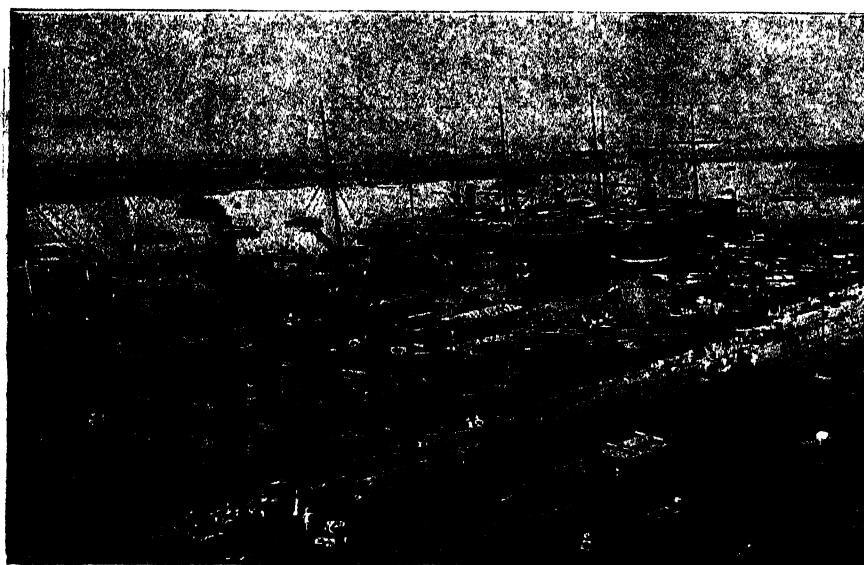
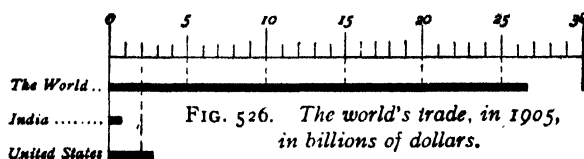


FIG. 527. The harbor of Calcutta. The foreign steamers are being loaded from the small native boats clustered in the foreground.

sprang up on this river, owing to the filling up of the lower channel. The harbor is kept open only by costly engineering works. The city is the chief trade center for the products of the Ganges. Delhi is the seat of the Indian government. (Fig. 527.)

Bombay, with a fine protected harbor, is situated on an island off the west coast of India. (See Fig. 509.) Owing to the recent development of the railroads over the mountains, it has been brought into close touch with the producing areas of central India, and now rivals Calcutta in the importance of its trade.

Karachi has an artificial harbor which

NEPAL AND BHUTAN

On the southern slopes of the Himálaya Mountains are the two small independent principalities, *Nepal* and *Bhutan*.

Questions and Exercises

- (1) Draw a sketch map of India and write the names of its land and water boundaries.
- (2) Color the lowland portions and draw the Ganges, Brahmaputra, and Indus rivers.
- (3) Why does the Ganges receive more tributaries from the north than from the south?
- (4) What problem does the Ganges-Brahmaputra present to the people living in its valley?
- (5) What river in North America presents similar problems? (6) Compare the location of Calcutta with New Orleans. (7) Why should

the Indus Valley be so much less densely populated than the Ganges? (8) Compare in length and character the rivers of the east and west slopes of The Deccan.

(9) Compare the average height of The Deccan and the Appalachian Highland. (10) How have the Himalayas been a protection to India? (11) What is the only important gap leading from the west into India?

(12) On the map used in Exercise 1 draw the Heat Equator for January and July; draw arrows to indicate the direction of the winter monsoons; summer monsoons. (13) Write in figures on the map the yearly rainfall of Calcutta, Delhi, Madras, and Bombay. (14) Why does the southeastern coast of The Deccan receive rain from the northern trade winds? The northwest coast from the summer monsoons? (15) For what is the Indus chiefly important? (16) Why is the health resort of Simla located in the hills? (17) Draw a second sketch map and write the chief products, underlining those which are exported either in a raw or manufactured state. (18) What are the staple food products? (19) What contrasts in farming would you expect between India and the United States?

(20) Where is the population of India most dense? Least dense? (21) Of what advantage to England is the possession of India? (22) On the second sketch map locate Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, and Srinagar. (23) Draw railroads connecting Bombay with the Ganges Valley. (24) Why is Bombay a more important port than Madras? (25) Account for the location of Karachi. (26) Why is not tea sent overland from India to Europe as it is from China? (27) How would tea from India reach New York City? San Francisco? (28) Why is the commerce of India so largely with the United Kingdom?

LXXIII. CEYLON

Size and Situation. Ceylon is about half the size of England, and is separated from southern India by a narrow strait. This strait is so shallow that vessels from Madras to the west coast of India or to the Red Sea have to go around the island. (See Fig. 503.)

Surface and Climate.

The southern half of Ceylon is extremely mountainous, while the northern half is a low, flat plain. The southwestern portion, because of its mountains, receives the moisture carried by both the southwest and the northeast monsoons. Agriculture can therefore be carried

on successfully, and the densest population on the island is found here. (See Fig. 528.)

The northern plains are too low to receive any moisture from the winds which sweep over them, and for that reason receive little rainfall at any time during the year. They are covered, however, by ruins left by ancient people, showing a former dense population.

Productions and

Trade. The mountains of Ceylon are occupied largely by Europeans engaged in operating tea plantations, which have in recent years replaced coffee. Tea growing is the chief occupation, and tea

forms nearly half the exports. (See Fig. 529.) The lower plains and the hills with a warmer, more moist climate are devoted to rice (see Fig. 530) and cocoanuts. Pearl fisheries

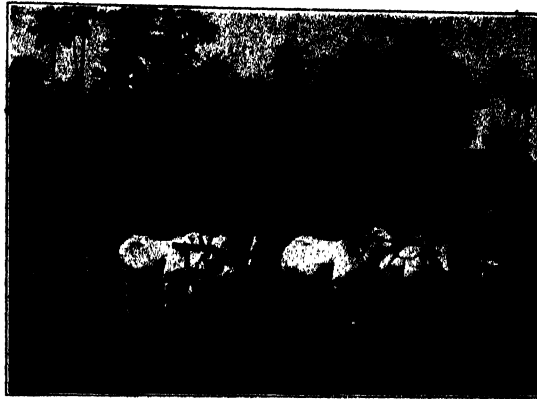


FIG. 528. Plowing in the rich agricultural region of Ceylon.

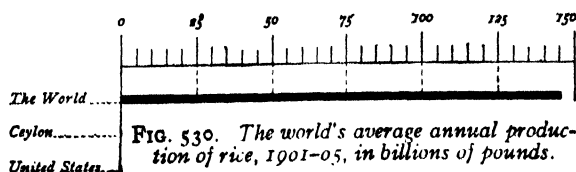
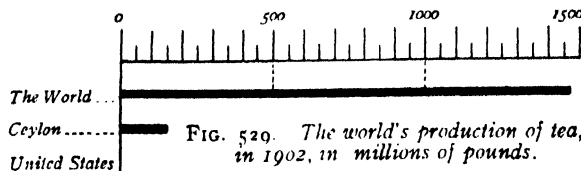




FIG. 531. A general view of Kandy, an interior city of Ceylon.

are, as a rule, profitable in the *Gulf of Manar*, but the returns are uncertain. The trade is largely with India and the United Kingdom.

Colombo is a calling port for vessels plying between Europe and the Far East by way of the Suez Canal. Connected by rail with the hill plantations, it has ready access to the areas furnishing the leading exports. In the interior, near large and attractive botanic gardens, is *Kandy* (see Fig. 531), the old capital.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Draw a map of Ceylon showing the continental shelf connecting it with India. (2) Locate Colombo and draw the ocean route between Madras and the west coast of India. Show the trade route leading from Colombo to the west and the east.

LXXIV. INDO-CHINA

The Peninsula as a Whole. Indo-China, sometimes called Farther India, includes *Upper and Lower Burma*, *French Indo-China*, *Siam*, the *Malay States*, and the *Straits Settlements*. The peninsula extends to within ninety miles of the equator. It is narrow and low at the *Kra Isthmus*, which is situated at 10 degrees north latitude. A canal, which has been proposed across this isthmus, would greatly shorten the distance by water between the eastern coast of Asia and Europe.

Surface and Climate. Indo-China is a plateau crossed by range after range of mountains extending north and south, one of these running out to form the Malay Peninsula. Low plains exist in French Indo-China and in the valley of the *Irāwadi*. The climate is everywhere tropical, with a heavy rainfall, which gives a luxuriant vegetation, especially in the Malay Peninsula where dense jungles exist. (See Figs. 119 and 503.)

BURMA

Products. The *Irāwadi* River valley lies between higher lands covered with teak forests, and is extensively planted with rice. Burma exports more teak than any other country. There are few roads, and most of the transportation of goods is carried on by means of oxen and elephants.

Rangoon, the outlet for the trade of the *Irāwadi* Valley, is the chief port, and is accessible at high tide to large, ocean-going vessels. Rubber, petroleum, coal, gold, and rubies, together with teakwood, are the chief exports. The rubies found here are the finest in the world. Burma is a part of the Empire of India.

MALAY PENINSULA AND STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Products; People; Cities. The products of the Malay Peninsula are all tropical in nature



FIG. 532. A native house in the spice country of the Malay Peninsula.

and include rice, cotton, sugar cane, sago, gums, and spices. However, tin, found in great abundance, is the leading product.

The people of the Malay Peninsula (see Fig. 532) are mostly Malays, or brown people; they are closely related to the yellow people

The chief cities of the Malay Peninsula are *Malacca* and *Singapore*. (See Fig. 533.) Singapore is a coaling port for vessels plying between Europe and the Far East. It is a great shipbuilding center with large shipyards, and is near the largest tin-smelting works in the world. The Straits Settlements, which occupy the lower part of the Malay Peninsula, are a part of the British Empire, and give the English control of the Strait of Malacca. Next to India, they have the largest commerce of any country in southern Asia. (See Fig. 534.)

SIAM

Products; Cities. Siam is an independent country. The only cultivated areas are the delta and the river banks of the Menam River, which are devoted to rice. Teak grows in the higher hills, and gold and tin are mined in considerable quantities. *Bangkok* is the chief port and town, but it has a poor harbor, owing to the presence of sand bars, and its commerce is unimportant. Siam is not so progressive as India.

FRENCH INDO-CHINA

Products; Cities. French Indo-China, a dependency of France, is much like Siam in products and climate. *Hanoi*, the capital and *Saigon*, situated in the delta of the Mekong River, are the chief towns.

Questions and Exercises

(1) On an outline map write the names of the land and water boundaries of Indo-China. (2)

Show by a dotted line the effect of the proposed canal at the Kra Isthmus.

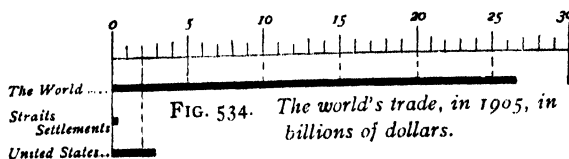
(3) What is the chief food of the people of Burma? (4) How is the climate and soil fitted to raise this grain in such quantities? (5) To what point is the Irrawadi navigable? (6) Account for the location of Mandalay and Rangoon.

(7) To what country does the Straits Settlements belong? (8) What great highway does Singapore control? (9) Name three great ocean gateways in Europe and Asia controlled by the United Kingdom. (10) What does Singapore receive? (11) What does it distribute?

(12) On the map used in Exercise 1, locate Bangkok and Singapore.



FIG. 533. A suburban street near Singapore, giving a good idea of the tropical vegetation.



LXXV. THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Position and Climate. The Republic of China is more than half as large as the whole of North America. It includes *China*, *Manchuria*, *Mongolia*, *Sinkiang*, and *Tibet*. It lies on the eastern coast of the great continent of Eurasia, and from its great extent has a wide range of climate. The

winters are cool in the south, cold and rigorous in the north and in the interior, with desert conditions on the high plateaus of Tibet, Turkistan, and Mongolia.

Owing to the great size of the continent and to the extremely low continental temperatures which prevail in the interior in winter, cold climates extend farther south on the east coast than they do in the corresponding part of North America. The southeastern coast lies in a region swept by monsoons and receives abundant rainfall in winter when the winds blow from the sea.

Surface and Drainage. A large part of the Republic of China is extremely mountainous and very thinly populated. The most important portion is the group of river plains along the eastern coast. (See Fig. 503.) Here the densest population is found. The water gaps, where the rivers cross the mountain ranges, are narrow and very difficult of passage, owing to the rapids. These rapids have been a great barrier to interior trade.

In spite of the mountains, the Yangtse-kiang is navigable for a thousand miles, and ocean-going vessels can reach Hankow, six hundred and eighty miles up the river. The Hwang-ho, or Yellow

River, sometimes called "China's Sorrow," flows in its lower portion across a very flat, alluvial plain. This plain is so level that the river, which is not forced to follow any particular channel, often changes its course. It formerly flowed into the Yellow Sea, but now empties into the Gulf of Pechili. It is sub-

ject to floods, which often do immense damage to both life and property.

CHINA

Population.

China is the most important of the several divisions of the Republic of China. It is densely inhabited, and contains nearly five-

sixths of the population of the entire country. Most of the people belong to the yellow race.

Surface and Climate. Southern China is mountainous, contains no plains, and has an extremely rugged coast. The harbors are

excellent, but are difficult of access from the interior, so that oceanic commerce is imperfectly developed. The climate is tropical or subtropical, with wet and dry seasons. Northern China has a low and sandy coast with few harbors.

Products of the Soil. Tea, silk, rice, sugar cane, opium, and cotton are the most important products of the soil. Rice is grown wherever possible, and forms the chief food of the

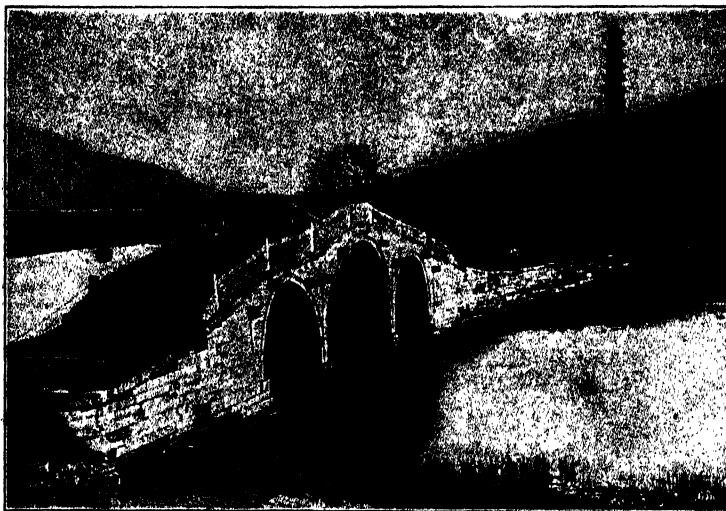


FIG. 535. An old stone arched bridge on a highway crossing Ta-hu Lake, China. Notice the seven-story pagoda in the distance.

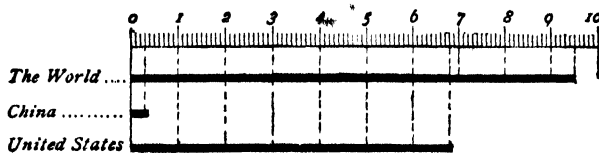


FIG. 536. The world's production of cotton, in 1905, in billions of pounds.

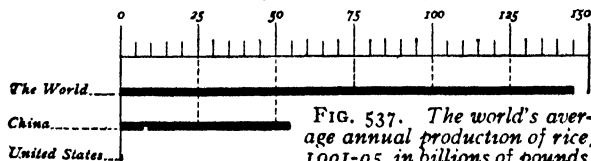


FIG. 537. The world's average annual production of rice, 1901-05, in billions of pounds.

people. In southern China the mountains are covered with heavy forests in which mulberry trees thrive. The raising of silkworms, which feed upon the mulberry, is the most important industry. Tea is grown in the west and south; and sugar and cotton in the south. (See Figs. 511, 536, 537, 538, 539, 574, and 578.)

In northern China the soil is mostly made of detritus blown by the winds from the deserts farther inland and brought down by the rivers. This soil is very fine and yellow. It is easily blown about, and everything it rests upon is yellow like the ground; in fact, this portion of the country is sometimes called "The Yellow Kingdom." The soil is fairly fertile, but irrigation has to be employed in order to raise crops, and wells dot the country as they do in India. Pigs, poultry, and dogs are to be found almost everywhere.

Mineral Products.

The mineral deposits of China are especially valuable. China is the only country having coal fields rivaling those of the United States, but owing to the backwardness of the people, little coal has been mined. The chief mineral products are iron and pottery clay.

Manufacturing. Owing to the fact that the Chinese have not kept in touch with modern methods of business and have not made use of their abundant natural resources, manufacturing is only slightly developed in China, and is mostly done by hand. Silk,

cotton, paper, and porcelain goods are the leading manufactured products.

Transportation. Interior communication in China is poor except over the plains and along the main waterways. There are few highways (see Fig. 535) and fewer railroads. The building of railroads, at first opposed by

the government, is now encouraged, and railroads are increasing rapidly, especially about Peking.

The interior trade is largely carried on by caravan. The Grand Canal, extending from Tientsin-fu to the Yangtse-kiang, a distance of seven

hundred miles, makes it possible for the products of the plains to be brought to the sea.

Cities. The principal trade of China with foreign countries is carried on at the "treaty ports," that is, ports opened to foreign trade, and which are the only places where foreign vessels are allowed to load or discharge their cargoes. These ports now include nearly all river and coast towns.

Shanghai, at the mouth of the Yangtse-kiang, is the largest industrial city, and the only good port on the northern coast.

Hong-kong, on an island near the mouth of the Canton, a British possession since 1842, is the most important port except Shanghai. Steamers run daily between the port and the populous city of Canton. (See Fig. 541.)

Hankow is an active river port. *Tientsin-fu*, the port of Peking, has a poor harbor, but is the treaty port of northern China. (See Figs. 511 and 540.)

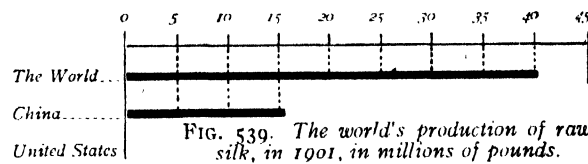
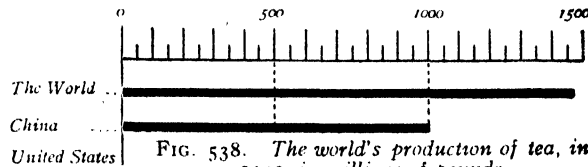


FIG. 540. The busy "treaty port" of Tientsin-fu.

Peking, the capital, is the best known city, and as the seat of government is in many ways the first city of China. Because it is practically the gateway to both Mongolia and Manchuria, it is of great strategic importance.

Trade. China ranks third in commerce among the Asiatic nations. Most of its trading is with the British port of Hong-kong, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The chief exports of China are characterized by great value in small bulk. China is the leading country of the world in the production of raw silk, and exports large quantities of tea, most of which is carried overland. The tea industry has declined in recent years, owing to the development of the tea plantations of India and Ceylon. Yet China still exports more than twice as much tea as India, the next greatest tea-producing country of the world. The principal imports are cotton and opium. The chief export to the United States is tea. Our country supplies China with a large part of its cotton goods, and with some wheat and flour. Regular lines of steamers ply between the United States, China, and Japan. (See Fig. 542.)

Industry and Enterprise. The chief reasons for the backwardness of China are the extreme conservatism of the people, which prevents them from adopting new inventions, and their religion, which teaches them to reverence the old and therefore prevents the introduction of new and progressive methods and ideas.

Although the Chinese are particularly

backward at the present time, yet it must be remembered that they once led in invention, and that the use of the compass and printing were known in China long before they were in any other part of the world.

TIBET

Characteristics and Products. Tibet is a lofty and barren country (see Figs. 503 and 543)* with an extremely severe climate. The scattered population is most dense in the valley of the Brahmaputra. Sheep and goats form the principal wealth, although the yak is an important beast of burden.

Cashmere wool is the most valuable product.

The only town is *Lhasa*, the holy city for the Buddhists, in which, until recently, no foreigners were allowed. In fact, the people of Tibet are so unfriendly to foreigners that large parts of the region are unexplored and little known.

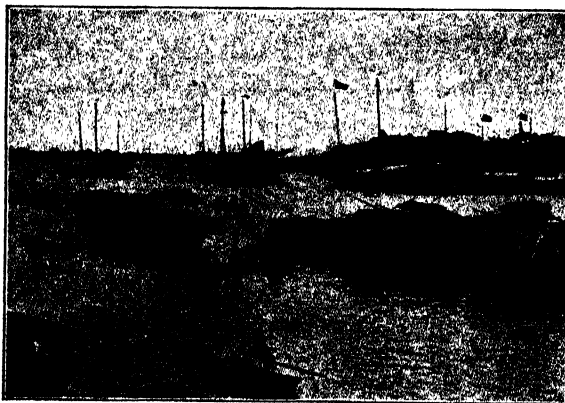


FIG. 541. The harbor of Canton, showing the types of native river craft.

SINKIANG

Surface and Trade. Sinkiang is mostly an arid, desert-like tableland with a sparse and nomadic population. The only cultivated regions are in the oases at the foot of the mountains. *Kashgar* and *Yarkand* are the leading towns. They carry on a considerable caravan trade with China.

MONGOLIA

Climate and People.

Mongolia is mostly made up of the great desert, Gobi, one of the largest and driest

arid regions in the world. The people are nomads, following their herds of horses, camels, and sheep. They have no industries, and few products to contribute to the world's trade.

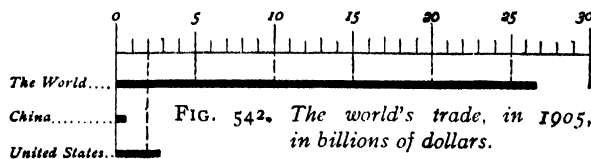


FIG. 542. The world's trade, in 1905, in billions of dollars.

MANCHURIA

Industries. Manchuria is a mountainous region with valuable, but little worked, deposits of coal and iron. Farming is carried on along the river valleys; grazing is the leading industry elsewhere.

Cities. *Tairen* (Dalny), under Japanese control, at the end of the Trans-Siberian Railway, and *Port Arthur*, a Japanese naval station on the Yellow Sea, are the chief cities. *Harbin*, at the junction of the Manchurian and Trans-Siberian railways, is a growing town, and *Mukden*, on the Manchurian Railroad, besides being the capital, is an important military stronghold.

Questions and Exercises

(1) On an outline map write the names of the countries composing the Republic of China. (2) Color China in pale yellow. (3) Locate five important treaty ports and the Japanese port of Port Arthur.

(4) Where is the most thickly peopled part of China? (5) Why is the Hwang-ho called "China's Sorrow"? (6) What river in North America may be compared with the Yangtse-kiang because of the number of large towns on its banks?

(7) Locate Hankow. Give a reason why a town should grow up here. (8) What is exported from Hong-kong? (9) What are the disadvantages of the location of Peking? (10) To what race do the Chinese belong? (11) To what part of the United States have they emigrated in great numbers? (12) What do they do there?

(13) What geographical reason can you give for the fact that Tibet is so little explored? (14) Why is Manchuria desired by Russia? (15) Find out something about the building and the history of Tairen. (16) Explain the advantages of the position of Port Arthur as a Japanese port.

LXXVI. CHOSEN (KOREA)

Surface and Climate. Chosen, with an area about as large as Great Britain, occupies the mountainous peninsula lying between the Yellow Sea and the Japan Sea. The country is now a part of the Japanese Empire. The winters in Chosen are severe and the summers are wet. The climate in spring and autumn is delightful.

Products; Trade. Forests abound in the hills of Chosen, and barley, oats and millet are raised in the valley regions of the north, where the summer climate is similar to that of northwestern Europe. Maize, rice, and tobacco are the principal products in the more temperate south, where the valleys produce two crops a year.

The exports include ginseng, a root which is sent to China, hides, beans, and rice. The chief imports are cotton goods from the United Kingdom and the United States. *Soul* is the capital, and *Chemulpo* is the principal port.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Draw a diagram showing the position of Chosen in relation to Japan and Russia. (2) Draw the boundary between Japan and Chosen; Russia and Chosen.

(3) Why was each of these countries so anxious for this peninsula? (4) Compare the climate of Chosen with that of Iceland. (5) Compare the products. (6) Why is not Chosen a progressive region like the United Kingdom? (7) Compare the latitudes of the United Kingdom and Chosen and explain the differences in climate.



FIG. 543. In the mountainous country, Tibet. Notice the farmhouse in the foreground built of stones gathered from the barren surface.

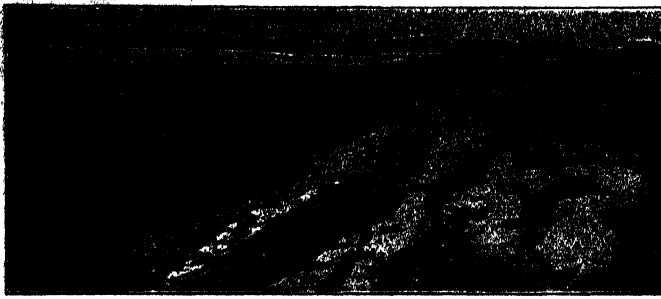


FIG. 544. *The effect of an earthquake in Japan. Notice the warping of the railroad bridge.*

LXXVII. THE JAPANESE EMPIRE

The Japanese Empire includes all the islands from Kamchatka to the Philippines, except one-half of *Karafuto* (Sakhalin), and also the peninsula on which Port Arthur is located. The principal islands are *Nippon* (*Hondo*) or *Japan*, and *Yezo*.

Surface. Japan is made up of extremely mountainous and volcanic islands. It has more than fifty active and extinct volcanos, the most symmetrical and beautiful of which is *Fuji-yama*. Owing to the volcanic activity, the country is shaken by severe earthquakes each year, and all buildings have to be constructed so as to withstand these shocks. (See Fig. 544.)

The surface of Japan is extremely rugged. Partly for this reason there are few railroads and practically no highways to the interior, so that wheeled vehicles, except those drawn by men, are rare.

Climate and Vegetation. The climate of the Japanese Empire is both oceanic and continental in its character. Snow lies in the north until May, and copious rains fall in the south during the summer monsoon. The west coast receives some rain during the winter season when it is reached by the westerly winds blowing out from the continent.

Owing to the genial climate during the summer, the growth of vegetation is very rapid. One of the principal plants is the bamboo, which is used for furniture and paper; the tender shoots are used as food. Forests abound in the north.

Products of the Soil. Nearly one-eighth of the area of Japan is devoted to agriculture. The tools used are still,

in many sections, very primitive. (See Fig. 547.) In spite of unfavorable conditions, however, agriculture succeeds very well. Since agriculture is carried on wherever possible, little room is left for live stock. Japan produces little butter, milk, cheese, or wool.

The alluvial plains and terraced mountain slopes of the south, where the climate is warm and moist, are devoted chiefly to rice (see Figs. 545 and 574), sugar, and cotton. Cereals abound in the cooler north. Fruits

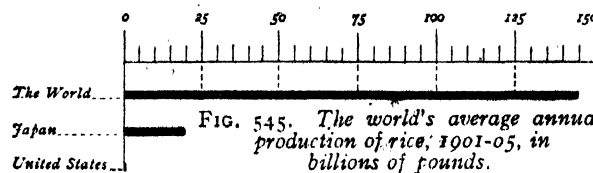


FIG. 545. *The world's average annual production of rice, 1901-05, in billions of pounds.*

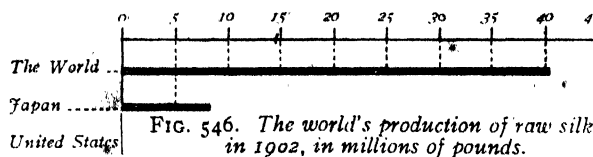


FIG. 546. *The world's production of raw silk, in 1902, in millions of pounds.*

of all kinds are raised abundantly, and grow to large size, but they lack the sweetness of similar fruits raised in the more severe climate of the eastern United States. Mulberry trees are cultivated as food for silkworms in most of the provinces. (See Figs. 546 and

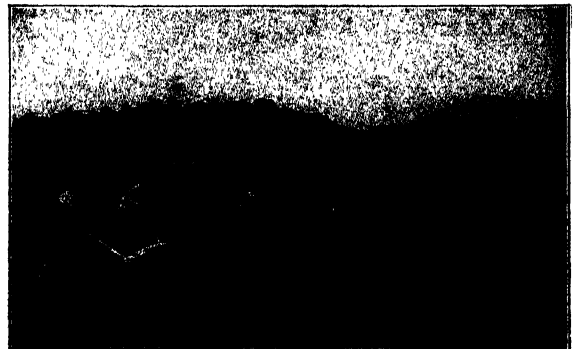


FIG. 547. *Primitive plowing in the less civilized mountain districts of Japan.*

548.) Tea is grown in the southern provinces in great abundance.

Mineral Products. Japan has rich coal fields, especially in the island of Yezo. Sulphur is produced abundantly, as it is in most volcanic regions. Iron and kaolin for pottery are the other important earth products.

Manufacturing. Manufacturing in Japan is generally backward. It is mainly confined to handicrafts, to cotton and silk weaving, paper making, and the production of matches. The wood of the forests produces the material for matches, as it does in Sweden, and the Japanese are now making matches for export, particularly to the eastern coast of Asia.

Trade and Enterprise. Interior communication in Japan is poor, but nearly every city is a port. *Yokohama*, the port of Tokyo, the capital, has an excellent harbor, and *Nagasaki* is an important ship-building center, from which much coal is exported. The trade of Japan is nearly as great as that of China, and is largely with the United Kingdom, the United States, China, and Germany. Silk, cotton goods, and coal are the most important exports. (See Figs. 511 and 549.) Tea is a valuable product in trade. Sugar is imported from China, and machinery and cottons from Europe and America. As is the case with China, the best known export to our country is tea; petroleum is sent in return. The Japanese, in contrast with their neighbors in China, have readily adopted European cus-

toms and industries, and are therefore progressing rapidly.

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

Surface and Products. Taiwan, the most southern island of the Japanese Empire, is extremely mountainous. It is important chiefly for its tea and camphor. Indeed, it is the chief source of supply for camphor.

Questions and Exercises

(1) In what ways may Japan be compared with Great Britain? (Consider situation, coast line, and harbors.)

(2) What facts as to soil and climate render the plains so productive? (3) Find out by reading or from pictures how the buildings in Japan have to be constructed to withstand earthquake shocks.

(4) What Japanese manufactured articles have you seen? (5) Name any you may have in your home. (6) Through what American ports do products from Japan reach our country? (7) What does the United States export to Japan? (8) Why would you expect sulphur to be a product of Japan? (Of southern Italy?) (9) Try to imagine how different your food would be if the United States, like Japan, produced few dairy products.

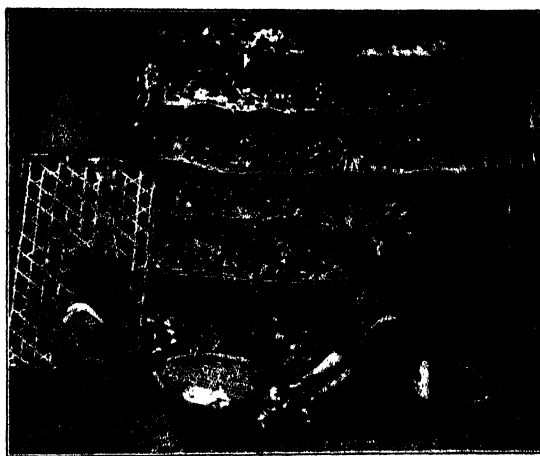
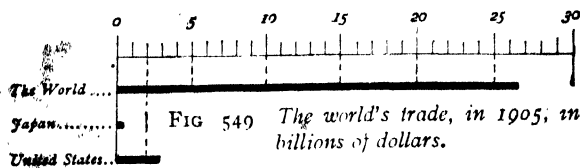


FIG. 548. Japanese girls picking silkworm cocoons from the straw beds.

LXXVIII. THE MALAY ARCHIPELAGO

Ownership and Characteristics. The Malay Archipelago, or Malaysia, is made up of all the islands southeast of Asia, except those belonging to China and to Japan. (See Fig. 554.) It includes *New Guinea* with the neighboring islands, and the *Philippines*, which now belong to the United States. Most of the islands of the Malay Archipelago



belong to European powers and form important colonies on account of their products. *Sumatra, Celebes, Java*, most of *Borneo* and *New Guinea*, and the *Moluccas* belong to the Netherlands. Taken together this group of islands is known as the *Dutch East Indies*.

Climate. The climate of the Malay Archipelago is everywhere moist and tropical, with little range in temperature and with only slight changes in the weather from day to day.

Plants and Animals. West of Wallace's Line, a line running between Borneo and Celebes which marks the division between two different animal and plant regions, are found palms, bamboos, laurels, oaks, and other trees common to Eurasia. Monkeys, tigers, rhinoceroses, tapirs, and elephants abound here, as they do throughout the Oriental Region.

East of Wallace's Line the trees are the tall eucalyptus and other forms characteristic of Australia. The animals are similar to those of the Australian Region. (See page 76.)

Products. The products of the Malay Archipelago are all tropical, and are of great value to the rest of the world.

In Java, which is one of the most important islands, coffee is the principal product, but this is now giving way, as it is in Ceylon, to tea and also to the growth of cinchona. *Batavia* is the principal city. (See Fig. 559.)

Tobacco is the chief product of Sumatra, coffee and cacao of the Celebes, and pepper of Borneo. The Molucca or Spice Islands furnish most of our cloves and nutmegs.

Tin is found in considerable quantities in the islands of *Banka* and *Billiton*, and is the only important mineral mined in the archipelago.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Make a list of the islands of the Malay Archipelago. (2) Opposite each write the name of the country to which it belongs. (3) Underline the two largest islands of this group.

(4) What is the yearly rainfall of these islands? (5) What coasts in America have an equal rainfall? (6) On an outline map draw Wallace's Line, and write the names of the plants and animals peculiar to each side of the line.

(7) Make a list of the chief products of the Malay Archipelago. (8) Which influenced the development of caravan and ocean trade in early times?

(9) Write a list of countries outside of Asia owning possessions in Asia. (10) Opposite each write the names of the possessions owned by that country.

SUMMARY

Asia, the largest of the great land masses, contains the broadest plains, the loftiest and the most extensive highlands, and the greatest area of interior drainage of any continent in the world. Owing to its size and position, it has the widest range of climate known; and because of the severity of its climate in the central and northern portions, large areas are sparsely populated and little known.

In general it is an unprogressive continent. Agriculture and grazing are the chief occupations of the people. Manufacturing has been of little importance, but is developing rapidly in some countries, owing largely to the influence of Europeans, or to the enterprise of those nations which have adopted European methods.

Asia has a little more than one-tenth of the commerce of the world, at least one-third of which is centered in India. India and the Straits Settlements have more than one-half of the commerce of the continent, and these regions, together with China and Japan, have more than three-fourths of it. The commerce of eastern Asia is destined to grow apace as the countries come more in touch with the peoples of Europe and America, as they are bound to do as the years go on. In that commerce of the future the United States, owing to its position across the sea from Asia, and its near-by possessions in the Philippines, will have a leading place.

AUSTRALIA AND THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC

LXXIX. AUSTRALIA

Size and Situation. The continent of Australia is about as large as the United States, not including Alaska and the other dependencies. It lies entirely in the subtropical and the temperate regions. It is the only considerable land mass in the water hemisphere, and is, therefore, the most isolated of all the continents. (See Figs. 26, 28, and 550.)

Coast Line. The shore line of Australia is long and regular with few indentations; as a result the continent has few good harbors. Vessels proceeding along the wind-swept eastern coast are protected by the *Great Barrier Reef*, which extends along the north-eastern shore for more than twelve hundred miles. This reef, which has been built by corals, is from twelve to fifteen miles off shore, and in places is a hundred miles wide. (See Fig. 552.) Quiet water usually prevails inside the reef and affords great protection to vessels in their passage along the coast. The channel of deep water is so narrow and tortuous, however, that sailing vessels rarely use this inside passage. If they do use it, they are obliged to anchor at night.

Surface and Drainage. The great mountain system of Australia is the *Dividing Range* along the eastern and southeastern coast.

This range is low in places, but attains high altitudes in the southeast, where peaks known as the *Australian Alps* rise over 7,000 feet. (See Figs. 551 and 553.) The *Dividing Range* separates the interior plain from the coastal valleys and contains the headwaters of the only considerable river of Australia, the *Murray*, with its tributary, the *Darling*. The *Murray River* is navigable at

certain seasons for 1,700 miles, but a large sand bar at its mouth makes it difficult to enter and restricts its usefulness as a highway of commerce.

The western portion of Australia is a plateau about a thousand feet high, from which a few short rivers flow into the Indian Ocean during times of rain. The greater portion of the interior is an undulating plain containing many salt basins and short streams of interior drainage. Large parts of this region are but little known. The southern coast rises rather abruptly from the ocean to a height of about five hundred feet, and for a distance of seven hundred miles has no streams entering the sea. (See Fig. 551.)

Climate. During December and January Australia lies entirely in the southern trade-wind belt, but in June and July the southern part is in the region of the southern prevailing westerlies. The *Dividing Range*, lying on the windward side of the continent, has an



FIG. 550. Australia, showing its position in the water hemisphere far from any other continent.



FIG. 551.

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important influence upon the rainfall. The trade winds lose most of their moisture in this range, and after crossing the mountains descend into the interior as drying, warming winds. (See Fig. 97.)

The rainfall along the eastern and the northern coasts is a little more than forty inches a year. It reaches a maximum of more than eighty inches, however, in the northern portion of the Cape York peninsula. Over large sections of the interior the rain-

fall is less than five inches a year and the region is therefore a desert.

During the southern summer, which reaches its height in January, the winds blow in toward the continent from nearly all directions, and the interior at that season is extremely hot. The average temperature of the interior in January is more than ninety degrees Fahrenheit. In winter the winds blow out from the continent as they do in Asia, and for that reason the interior at that

season is cold. The whole of Australia south of the Gulf of Carpentaria has an average winter temperature of between fifty and seventy degrees Fahrenheit.

In summer the Heat Equator lies over southern Australia, so that this region receives a heavy rainfall from the northwest trade winds. In winter when the Heat Equator has moved northward

the southeasterly trade winds prevail, so that the northern part of the continent has a climate like India and other countries that are swept by monsoons. (See Fig. 84.)

The southeastern and southern coasts have no frost at sea level, and thus the growing season in those districts is long. During the prevalence of the westerly winds, southwestern Australia and the island of Tasmania receive some rain.

Vegetation. The distribution of the vegetation in Australia is determined largely by the surface features and the climate. The northern coastal area is occupied by tropical forests and savannas. In the trade-wind regions of the southeastern coast lowly shrubs abound, and in the interior, steppes and deserts occupy almost all the area.

The eastern steppes are covered with grass and contain some oak forests; it is here that sheep are found in great numbers. The sheep find an admirable food in the long kangaroo grass which grows rankly during the growing season and

dries on the stalk. In the dry regions there is much "salt bush," as the characteristic vegetation is called. The salt bush makes an excellent sheep food, and the wool from sheep raised in this region is especially fine.

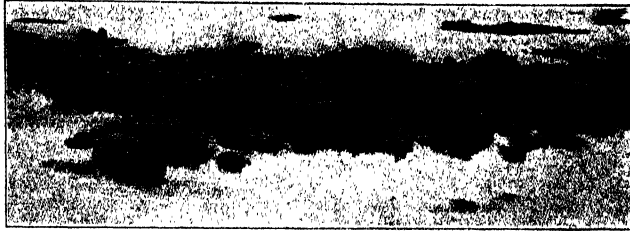


FIG. 552. A section of the Great Barrier Reef.

The vegetation of Australia, as has already been stated (see page 316), is unlike that found anywhere else in the world. The continent is particularly rich in ferns and in tall forest trees, of which the eucalyptus, whose tall, straight, slender trunks often grow to a height of more than four hundred feet, is the best known.

Animals. The wild animals of Australia all belong to the Australian Region, and have already been described. (See page 76.) The common domestic animals of Europe have been extensively introduced and are of great importance. Rabbits, which were first brought into the commonwealth for pets and

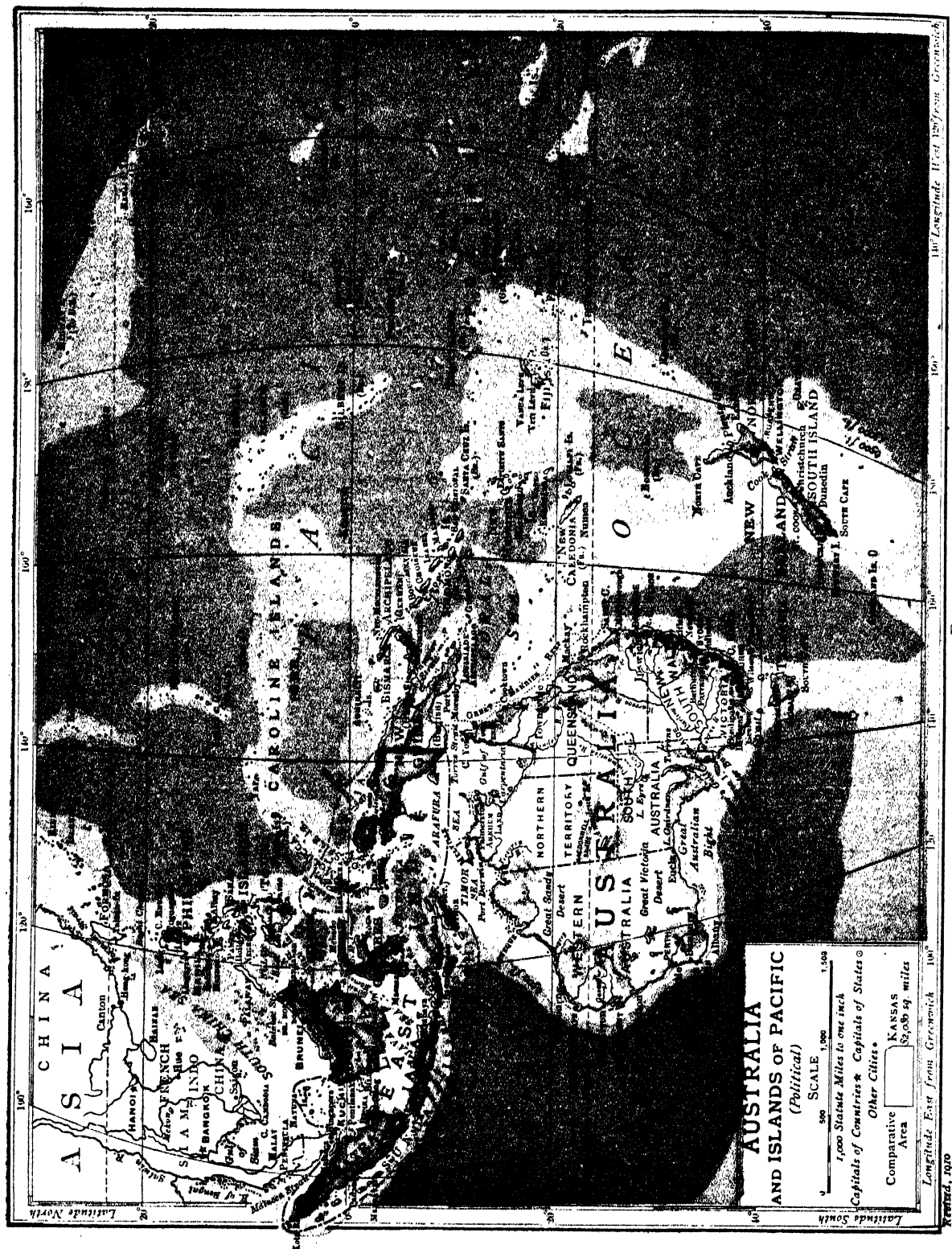
for food, have run wild and have so increased in numbers that they are now pests. Enormous sums of money have been spent in trying to rid the country of these animals, but without success.

People. The native people of Australia belong to the black race and are among the most primitive people in the world.

They use only the simplest implements, and have no form of government. They are rapidly dying out, however, so that there are probably not more than sixty or eighty thousand of them left.



FIG. 553. The towering peaks of the Australian Alps, with a portion of the broad interior plain.



The important people of Australia at the present time are the English, who have developed the continent to its present condition.

The Commonwealth of Australia. The five colonies of Australia, together with Tasmania, were combined under one government in 1901, forming the *Commonwealth of Australia*. The seat of government, now at Melbourne, eventually is to be in New South Wales, and distant not less than one hundred miles from Sydney.

Products of the Soil.

The valuable products of the soil are nearly all derived from animals and plants introduced by the Europeans. The native animals are of little value; sheep are the most important domesticated animals. The sheep of Australia produce the finest merino wool, especially in the grassy region of the Murray River and its tributaries and in the salt bush. The sheep farms, known as "sheep runs," are leased from the government. (See Fig. 555.)

The most important agricultural regions of Australia are *South Australia* and *Victoria*. Wheat is the chief crop in the temperate sunny south. (See Fig. 556.) Sugar cane is the leading crop of *Queensland* and northern *New South Wales*, which also produce bananas, oranges, and other tropical products.

Irrigation is practiced very extensively in northwestern Victoria; the water is drawn from the Murray River. On the irrigated regions valuable crops of oranges, figs, apricots, plums, and tobacco are raised. There

are some agricultural areas scattered through *Western Australia*. The climate, however, is generally unfavorable to agriculture, and most of the fields are at a distance from the only available harbor of *King George's Sound*.

Mineral Products. Gold, discovered in 1851, is the chief mineral product of Australia. (See Figs. 557 and 586.) It is found in *Queens-*

land, New South Wales, Western Australia, and Victoria. Silver occurs and is mined chiefly in New South Wales and Queensland. Copper, tin, coal, and iron abound. Coal is mined in New South Wales. Pearls are found off the western coast, and pearl fishing is carried on in Western Australia.

Trade. Australia is deficient in means for interior communication. There are few highways, and most of the railroads are

confined to the areas of somewhat dense population along the southeastern and eastern coasts. The leading towns are connected by a number of narrow-gauge roads with the gold, silver, and copper mines of the mountains. All the states are connected with Europe by steamers, and a cable across the Pacific to British Columbia was completed in 1902.

Wool and gold (see Figs. 555 and 557) are the chief exports. Most of the gold comes from Western Australia and Victoria; the wool from New South Wales, Queensland, and South Australia. The imports are chiefly textiles, manufactures, wheat, and sugar. More than one-half the trade is with the

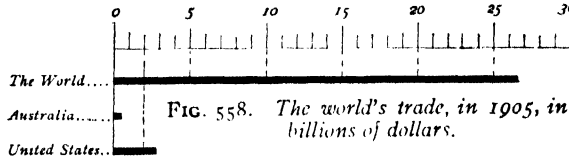
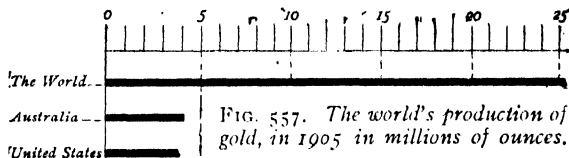
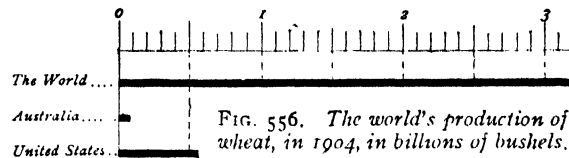
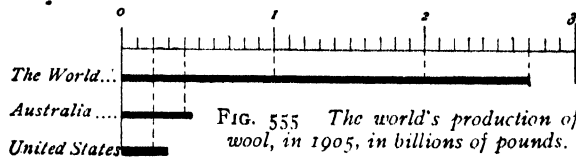




FIG. 559.

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mother country, and one-fifteenth with the United States. (See Fig. 558.) The most valuable export to the United States is wool; the imports from our country are largely lumber and machinery.

Cities. With the exception of a few mining centers in the interior, all the large towns and cities of Australia are on or very near the seacoast. This is due to distribution of the rainfall which makes the eastern coast the leading agricultural region of the continent.

By far the largest part of the imports and exports of Australia go through *Melbourne*. Melbourne is a very picturesque city, situated in the midst of beautiful scenery. It has an excellent harbor, well equipped with docks, shipyards, and the other necessities for carrying on commerce. (See Fig. 560.)

The second commercial city of Australia is *Sydney*. It has a fine harbor (see Fig. 561), and is the terminus of most of the oceanic mail routes. Melbourne and Sydney are well situated for trade, because they are within

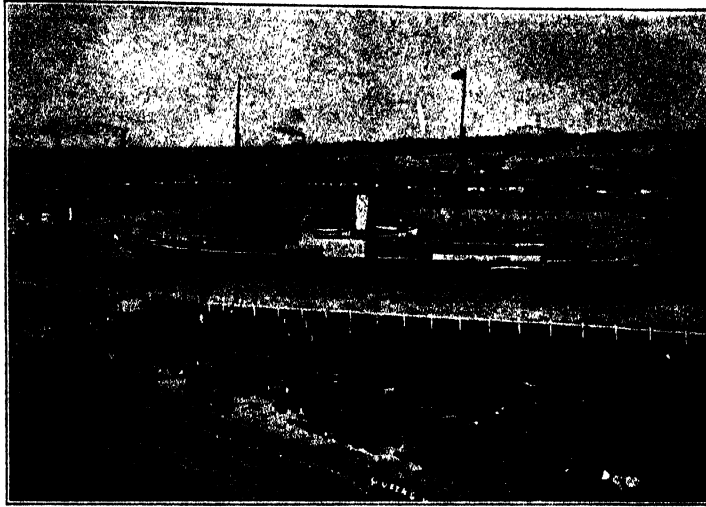


FIG. 560. *Melbourne. Across the water is the industrial portion of the city.*

easy reach of the principal agricultural regions of Australia.

Adelaide, the third commercial city in importance, has a poor harbor, and has been losing ground since the completion of the railroad connecting it with Melbourne.

Vessels from Europe stop at Adelaide and leave their mails, which are sent by rail to the other chief cities of the commonwealth.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Compare the latitude of Sydney, Melbourne, Rio Janeiro, and Durban. (2) About how far from San Francisco is Sydney? (3) Trace the route you would take from San Francisco to Sydney. (4) Name the waters passed through and the probable cities stopped at. (5) How does a telegram from Melbourne reach London?

(6) What part of Australia receives rain from the northwest trade winds? From the southeast

trade winds? (7) In what season does Perth have rains? In what months? (8) How does the Dividing Range affect the climate of eastern Australia? (9) Tell how the Dividing Range plays a part similar to the Sierra Nevada; the southern Andes. (10) Why should the interior of Australia be dry in summer

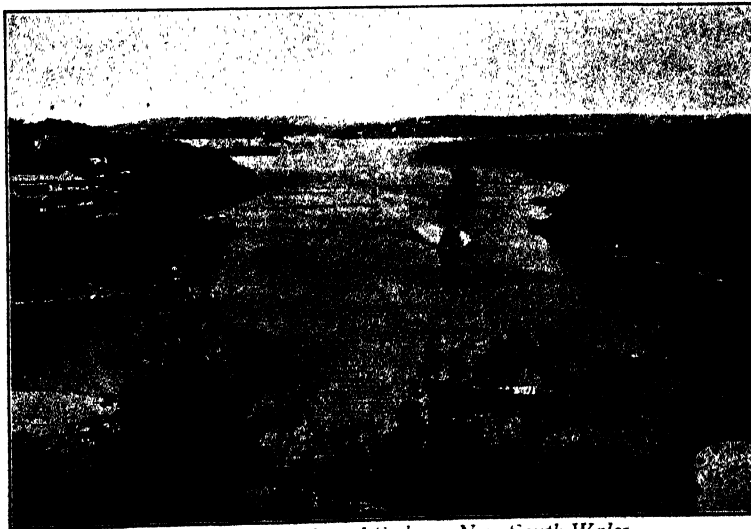


FIG. 561. *The harbor of Sydney, New South Wales.*

when winds are blowing toward the land? (11) At what season is the Murray River navigable for the greatest distance?

(12) Draw two sketch maps; one to show the position of the Heat Equator and the direction of the winds in January, and one to show the same for July. (13) Color both maps showing the heavy, moderate, and light rainfall. (14) On these maps write the chief vegetation areas.

(15) Compare the basin of the Murray-Darling River with that of the Mississippi. (16) If the Dividing Range were 1,000 feet lower what would be the effect on the climate and the rains of eastern Australia? (17) What would be the result if the Dividing Range ran between the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Great Australian Bight?

(18) Make a list of the states of the Commonwealth of Australia and write opposite each the name of the chief town. (19) Tell how the climate and the surface have affected the distribution of population.

LXXX. TASMANIA AND NEW ZEALAND

TASMANIA

Climate and Products. The western portion of Tasmania is a highland, rising between two and three thousand feet. Eastern Tasmania is level and open, and is an excellent grazing region. (See Fig. 562.) The climate of the island is similar to that of England, but much colder; it is well adapted to the raising of hops and fruit. The westerly winds bring plenty of rainfall, which is uniformly distributed through the year. Copper, silver, and tin are the chief mineral products.

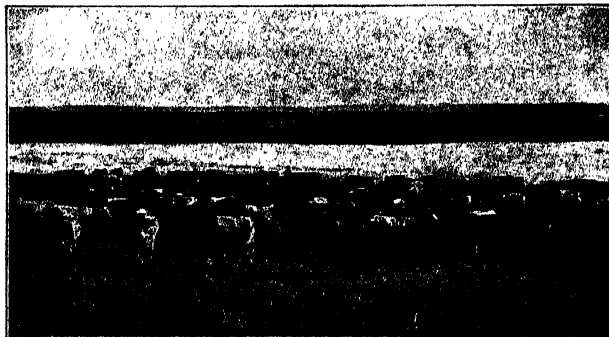


FIG. 562. Cattle grazing in the rich, level lands of eastern Tasmania.

Hobart, picturesquely situated on a fine harbor, is the only town of importance. Its position on the south side of the island is in a way unfortunate, as it is so far distant from Australia.

NEW ZEALAND

Situation and Coast Line. The colony of New Zealand, consisting of two large islands and many smaller ones, is situated more than a thousand miles southeast of Australia.

In the southwest there are many beautiful fiords, which form fine harbors. These harbors are of little value, however, because they have no good connection with the productive country east of the mountains. The important seaports are on the east coast.

Surface. The surface of New Zealand is in many parts very mountainous. The mountains near the western coast of South Island, known as the *Southern Alps*, rise to an altitude of 12,350 feet, and are covered by glaciers and forests. (See Figs. 563 and 564.)

Throughout a large part of the southern island the mountains rise like a wall and are without gaps or passes. In the northern island there are many volcanic peaks, some of which are still active. Hot springs and geysers are numerous; New Zealand has one of the three geyser regions of the world.

The only extensive lowland of New Zealand is the broad plain extending along the central eastern coast of South Island. It is



FIG. 563. Mount Rolleston, in the Southern Alps. Notice the vapor rising from the mountain slopes.

composed largely of arable land, and on the west merges into the mountain slopes, which, from their position on the leeward side of the mountains, are bare. Forests which produce timber of value are found on the western slopes of these mountains. Good agricultural land is also found on the small plains which are scattered along the coast of the northern island.

Climate. New Zealand lies in the region of the "roaring forties," and is therefore swept by strong winds. The rainfall, which is more than forty inches a year, is heaviest on the western side. The climate on the whole is warmer than that of England.

Products. The agricultural products of New Zealand are similar to those of England; wheat and oats are the most important. Large portions of the islands are occupied by rich pastures which support great numbers of sheep, cattle, and horses. The deposits of gold and coal are extremely rich.

Trade; Cities. Nearly three-fourths of the trade of New Zealand is with the United Kingdom, and the rest is practically all with Australia, and the United States. The chief exports are various products of the grazing industry. New Zealand sends to the United Kingdom enormous quantities of the best frozen mutton received there. Horses, cattle, and butter are sent to New South Wales.

Auckland, the largest town, is important as a coaling station for vessels plying between Sydney and San Francisco. The next city in rank is *Wellington*, the center of the local government.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Compare the latitude of Tasmania and England. (2) Why is England warmer? (3) In what way is the climate like that of England? (4) In what way is Tasmania like Ceylon? (5) Name the strait separating island and mainland in each case. (6) How far is it from Hobart to Sydney? Hobart to Auckland?

(7) Compare the average summer and winter temperature of New Zealand. Account for the slight range. (8) Why should there be glaciers on the mountains? (9) What can you say of the scenery of New Zealand? (10) On a map of the world show the importance of Auckland. What towns are connected by the cable between New Zealand and Australia?

LXXXI: THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN

The Pacific Ocean is dotted with a great number of single islands and groups of islands,

most of which are on the western side. Some of these, especially the Philippines, which are dependencies of our own country, we have already considered.

Ownership; Climate; Prod-

ucts. The larger number of the islands of the Pacific belongs to Germany, France, the United Kingdom, or the Netherlands, or are under the protection of these governments. Most of them lie in the tropics, and have a tropical climate. Many are of volcanic or of coral formation. The chief products are tropical in nature, and include bread fruit, cocoanuts, sugar cane, nutmegs, and pepper.

MELANESIA

The Solomon Islands, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and the Bismarck Archipelago are often grouped together. They are



FIG. 564. In the Alpine district of South Island, famous for the beauty of its mountain and lake scenery.

called *Melanesia*, meaning the *Islands of the Blacks*, as they are inhabited mostly by Papuans, or natives of New Guinea.

POLYNESIA

Characteristics and People. The small islands lying east of the longitude of New Zealand are known as *Polynesia*. They are inhabited mostly by black or brown people (see Figs. 565 and 566), and are almost all within the tropics. Many are surrounded by coral reefs, so that the off-shore lagoons form good harbors. Bread fruit is produced throughout the region and forms the chief food of the people.

Surface and Climate. The most important islands are the *Fiji* and *Samoa* groups.

The *Fiji* Islands lie in the southeast trade-wind belt and their mountain slopes, rising more than 4,000 feet above the sea, have an abundant rainfall. The scenery is grand. These islands form a calling port for vessels crossing the Pacific, and are of some importance in commerce. They belong to the United Kingdom.

The *Samoa* Islands are similar to the *Fiji* Islands in climate and in surface features. The islands are liable to be swept by great storms, so that their harbors are not always safe. They belong to Germany, except *Tutuila* and the other islands east of the parallel 171 degrees, which belong to the United States. *Tutuila* is small and of little importance except for the harbor and coaling station of *Pago-Pago*.

Products; Trade. The chief products of the *Fiji* Islands are tropical fruits and sugar cane, though grazing products are

increasing, owing to the introduction of cattle. Turtle and pearl shells and fish are secured along the coast. The trade is principally with the United Kingdom and Australia, from which machinery, cotton goods, and hardware are imported.

Copra, or the meat of the cocoanut, is the chief export of the *Samoa* Islands.

Questions and Exercises

(1) Cut a map of the world in two so that by joining the pieces you can have a whole map of the Pacific Ocean. (2) Locate the chief islands of *Melanesia* and *Polynesia*. (3) By using different colors indicate the nations to which these islands belong. (4) On the maps write the chief exports for which each group is important, and draw trade routes from these islands to the different nations to which they belong. (5) Make a list of all the islands of the Pacific that are *continental* rather than *oceanic*.

SUMMARY

Australia is the smallest and the most symmetrical continent. The climatic features are regularly distributed because the continent lies for a large part of the year in the region of the trade winds. The distribution of rainfall is strongly influenced by the distribution of the surface features; it is greatest on the windward slopes of the highlands and least in the low plains of the interior. The climate and surface are both favorable to grazing, so that this industry is the best developed. Australia has about two per cent of the commerce of the world, of which one-half is with the United Kingdom, and a little over one-fifteenth with the United States. The commonwealth is increasing rapidly in importance and is one of the most valuable and progressive colonies of the United Kingdom.



FIG. 565. Carriers in the Fiji Islands.

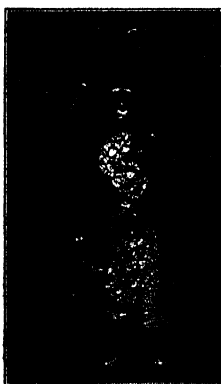


FIG. 566. A mother and children, in the Fiji Islands.

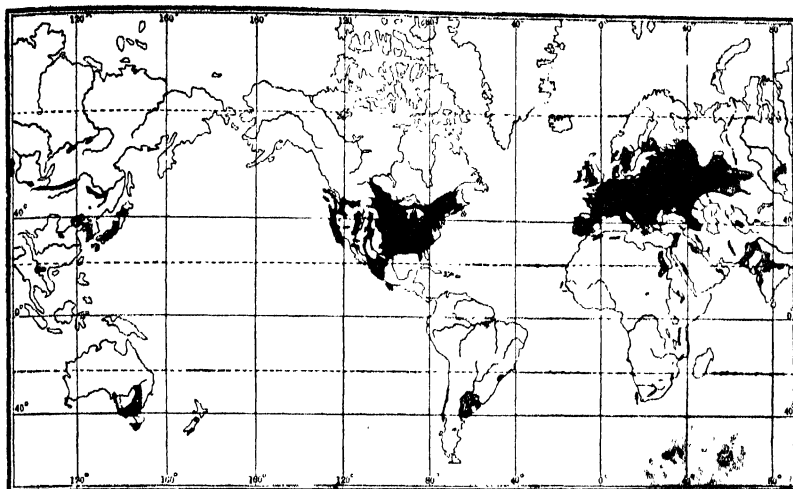


FIG. 567. The wheat-producing areas of the world.

LXXXII. A BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE WORLD'S COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

The Agriculture of the World. Inasmuch as every one is dependent on the products of

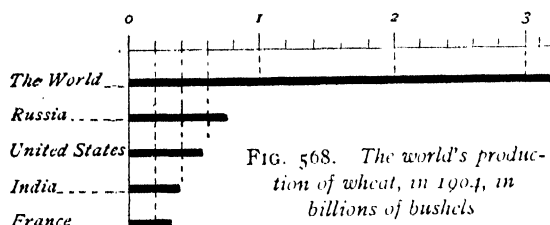


FIG. 568. The world's production of wheat, in 1904, in billions of bushels

the soil for his food, agriculture and grazing are important occupations in all parts of the world. In the agricultural regions of the tropics crops can be raised easily because the deep, rich soil and moist climate favor the rapid growth of vegetation. In the temperate lands the climate is more changing, and hence even where the soils are rich the lands have to be tilled during the growing season in order to secure

the best returns from the soil. Therefore agriculture as an occupation is best developed in the temperate regions and especially in the North Temperate Belt, where the population is much more dense than it is in the South Temperate Belt, and where the demand for food is consequently greater. (See Figs. 74, 119, and 169.)

The Leading Crops of the Temperate Regions. The chief crops of the temperate regions are cereals, especially wheat, rye, oats, barley, and corn. Wheat and rye are the

principal cereals used for food by the white race, while corn and oats are grown principally for stock, though both are used as food for people in certain countries. Wheat is

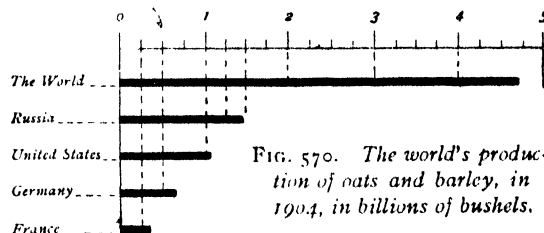


FIG. 570. The world's production of oats and barley, in 1904, in billions of bushels.

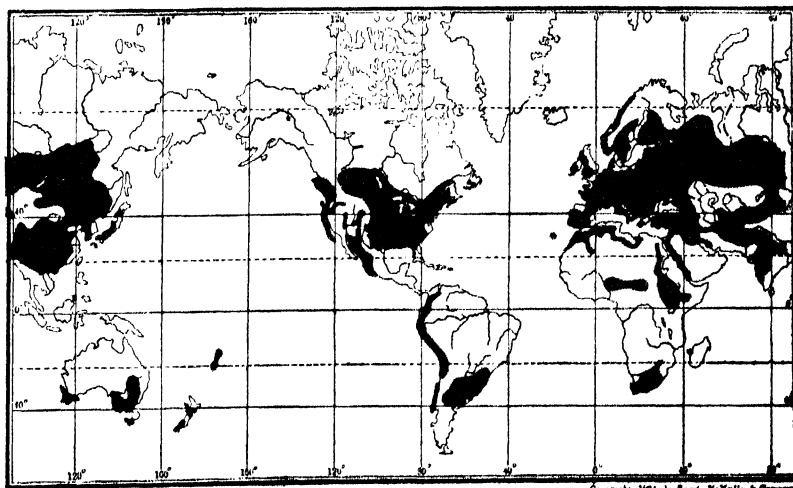


FIG. 569. The oats and barley producing areas of the world

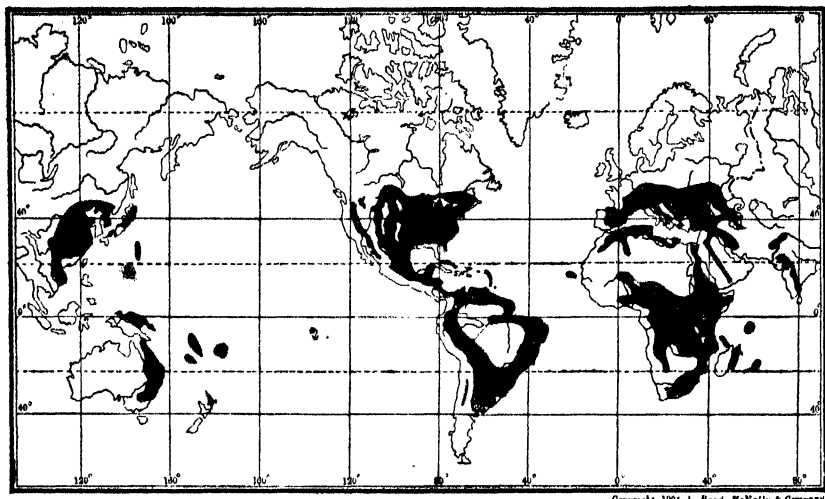


FIG. 571. The corn-producing areas of the world.

rapidly supplanting rye as a food among the peasants of Europe, and is beginning to be used instead of rice in India, China, and Japan.

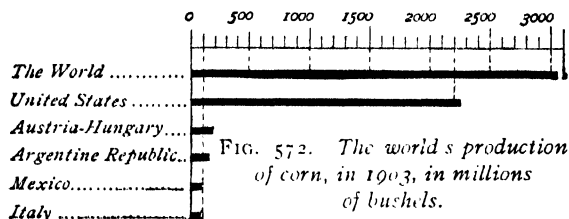


FIG. 572. The world's production of corn, in 1903, in millions of bushels.

Wheat. Wheat is the most important cereal that enters into the world's trade. Russia and the United States raise more than one-third of the total crop, owing to the vast areas of excellent soil adapted to wheat growing and to the favorable climate. The other wheat-producing nations in the order of their importance are India, France, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Germany, and the Argentine Republic. (See Figs. 567 and 568.) The United States sends to Europe a large part of the wheat and flour which it exports.

Rye. Rye is the chief food of the peasants of Germany, Russia, and other European countries. It thrives on poor soil which will raise no other grain and will stand a colder climate than wheat. The principal rye-producing countries are Russia and Germany, which together raise about seventy per cent of the world's crop. The production of rye in the United States is relatively unimportant.

Oats. Oats can be grown in the temperate regions where wheat thrives. They are produced as a leading crop farther north than

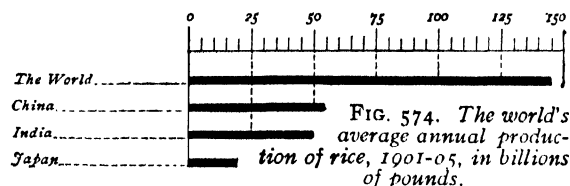


FIG. 574. The world's average annual production of rice, 1901-05, in billions of pounds.

wheat. Russia leads the world with more than one-fourth of the oat crop. The United States is a close second. Germany and France also have a large share in the world's

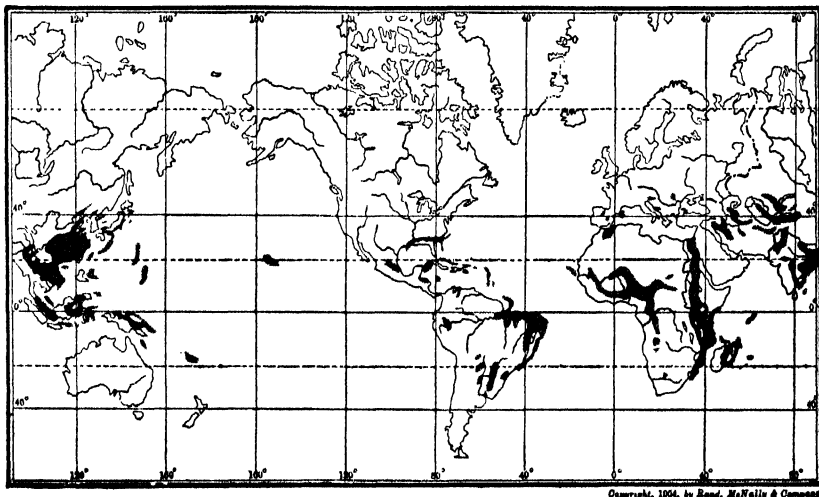


FIG. 573. The rice-producing areas of the world.

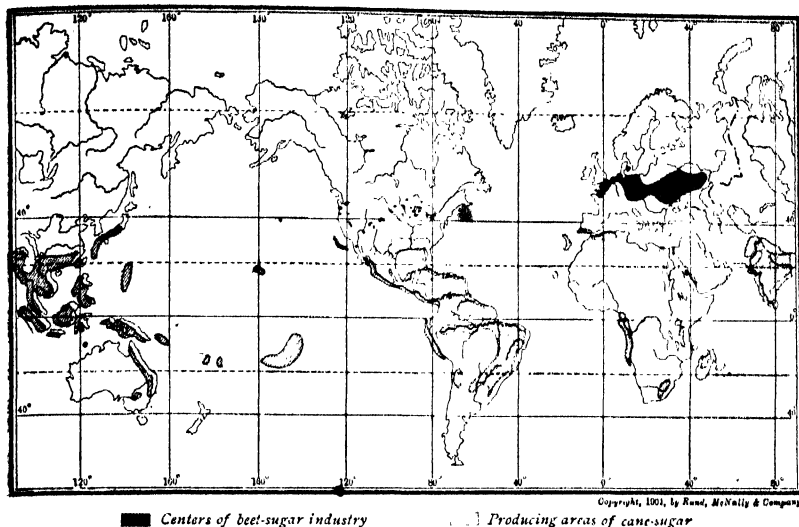


FIG. 575. The sugar industry of the world.

production of oats. More than twenty per cent of the oats shipped to Europe each year

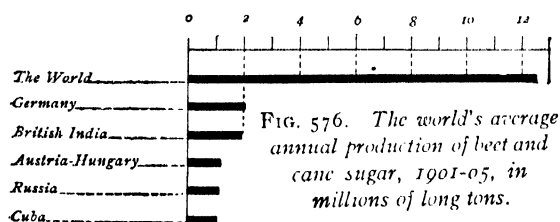


FIG. 576. The world's average annual production of beet and cane sugar, 1901-05, in millions of long tons.

is from the United States.

Barley. Barley thrives in a wider range of climate than any other cereal, though it is most successful in a climate similar to that favorable for oats. Practically eighty per cent of the barley of the world is grown in Europe, especially in Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Spain. (See Figs. 569 and 570.)

Corn. Indian corn is now very widely grown, though it originally was known only in the Americas. The United States produces about

three-fourths of all the corn in the world, Austria-Hungary and Argentine Republic ranking second and third in importance. It is raised in every state in the Union, but is the chief crop of the Northern States of the Mississippi Basin, where the climate is especially favorable. The total value of the corn crop in the United States is greater than that of all the other cereals grown in this country. (See Figs. 571 and 572.)

The Leading Crops of the Tropical and Subtropical Countries. The chief crops of the

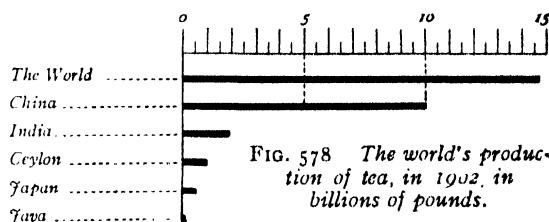


FIG. 578. The world's production of tea, in 1902, in billions of pounds.

warm and hot regions of the world are rice, cane sugar, tea, coffee, cocoa, cotton, and

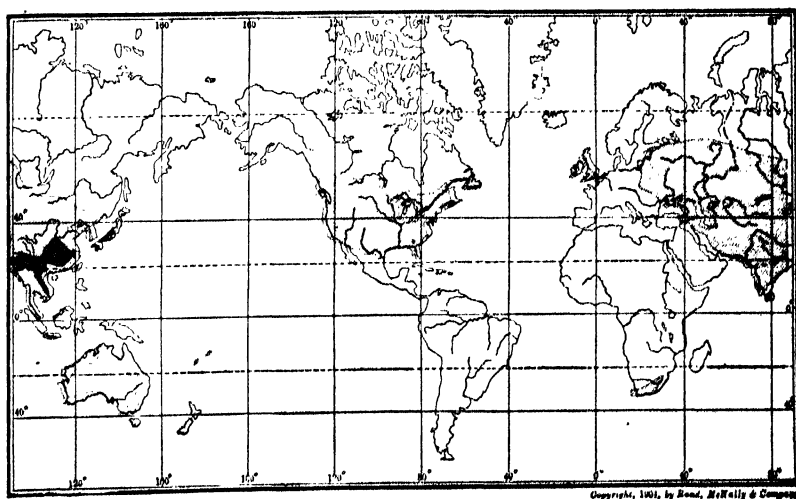


FIG. 577. The world's production and consumption of tea.

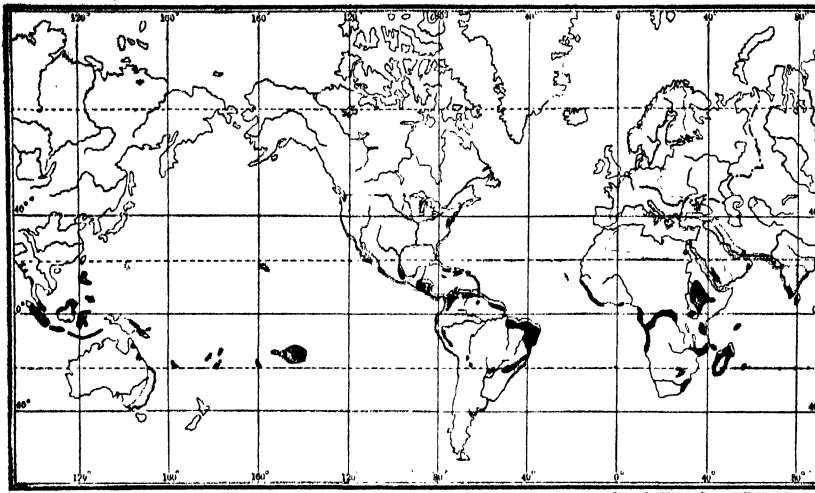


FIG. 579. The world's production and consumption of coffee.

tobacco. Certain of these crops, as, for instance, tobacco and tea, are grown also in

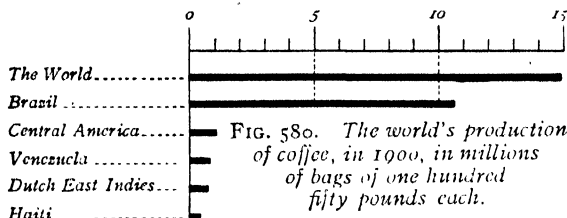


FIG. 580. The world's production of coffee, in 1900, in millions of bags of one hundred fifty pounds each.

the temperate regions, though they were formerly products of the warmer countries.

Rice. Rice is the chief cereal of the world.

It forms the principal food of millions of people of the yellow and brown races. It is, however, not as important commercially as the cereals of the temperate regions because it is used largely in the countries producing it. It is raised in great quantities in China, India, Japan, Indo-China, the Philippines, and Hawaii. The United States produces only about half of the rice needed for home consump-

tion, and imports the rest, mostly from Hawaii. (See Figs. 573 and 574.)

Sugar. The sugar of commerce is either cane sugar or beet sugar, the latter being the most important and slightly out-ranking cane sugar in amount. Beet sugar is made in abundance in Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and France. The United States imports much of its cane sugar, principally from the West Indies and from Hawaii.

It is the largest import of the United States. (See Figs. 575 and 576.)

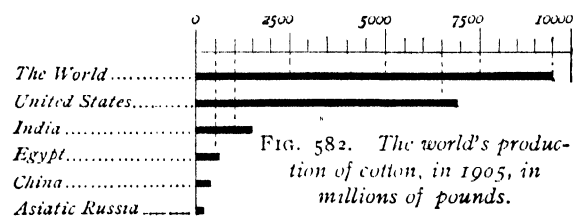


FIG. 582. The world's production of cotton, in 1905, in millions of pounds.

Tea. Tea is raised principally in China, India, Ceylon, and Japan, where the soil and climate are especially favorable. The greatest

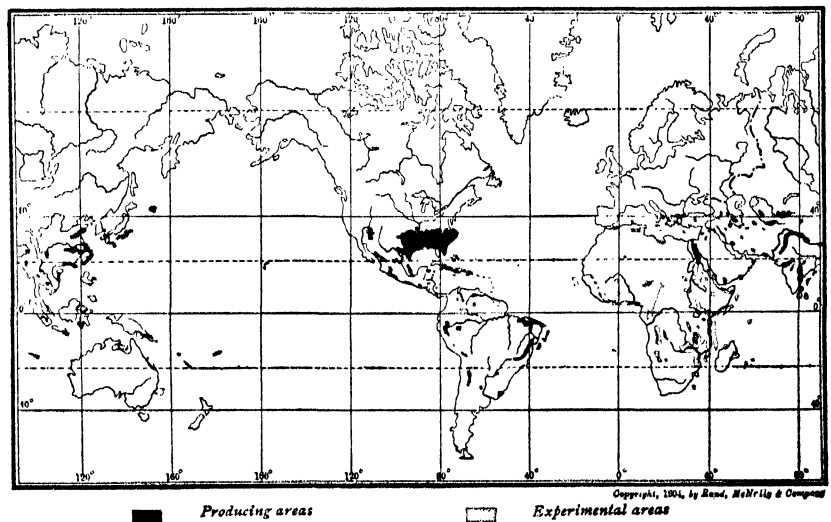


FIG. 581. The cotton-producing areas of the world.

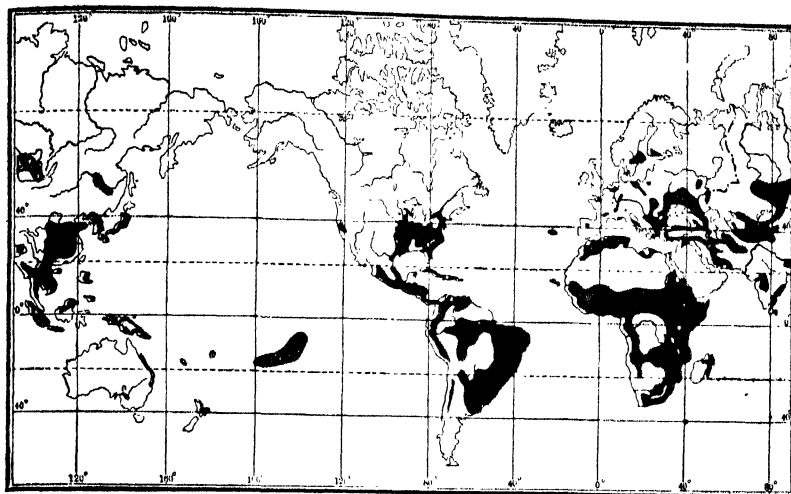


FIG. 583. The tobacco-producing areas of the world.]

consumers of tea are the United Kingdom, Russia, and America. (See Figs. 577 and 578.)

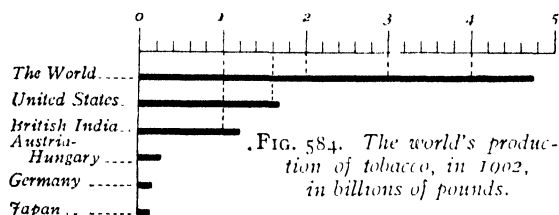


FIG. 584. The world's production of tobacco, in 1902, in billions of pounds.

Coffee. Coffee is distinctly a tropical product, and about ninety per cent of the coffee of the world is produced in Brazil, Central America, Venezuela, and Mexico. The United States receives most of its coffee from the American countries, and especially from Brazil. (See Figs. 579 and 580.)

Cotton. Cotton, the most important of the vegetable fibers, is raised in warm, moist, subtropical climates, and especially in the United States, India, Egypt, and China. The United States produces more than seventy per cent of the world's crop,

and exports it largely to the cotton mills of the United Kingdom, Germany, and France. (See Figs. 581 and 582.)

Tobacco. Tobacco is grown widely in the temperate and tropical regions. The United States leads the world (see Figs. 583 and 584) in production and also in exports of tobacco. The product goes chiefly to Europe, Canada, Australia, Japan, and South Africa.

Gold and Silver. With the exception of Australia, the United States is the greatest

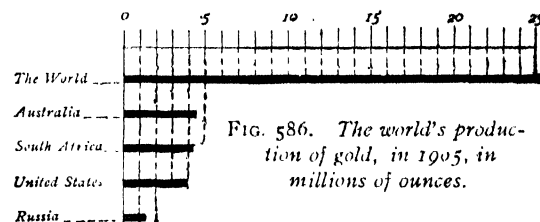


FIG. 586. The world's production of gold, in 1905, in millions of ounces.

gold-producing country of the world. In silver production, Mexico alone outranks the United States. (See Figs. 585, 586, and 588.)

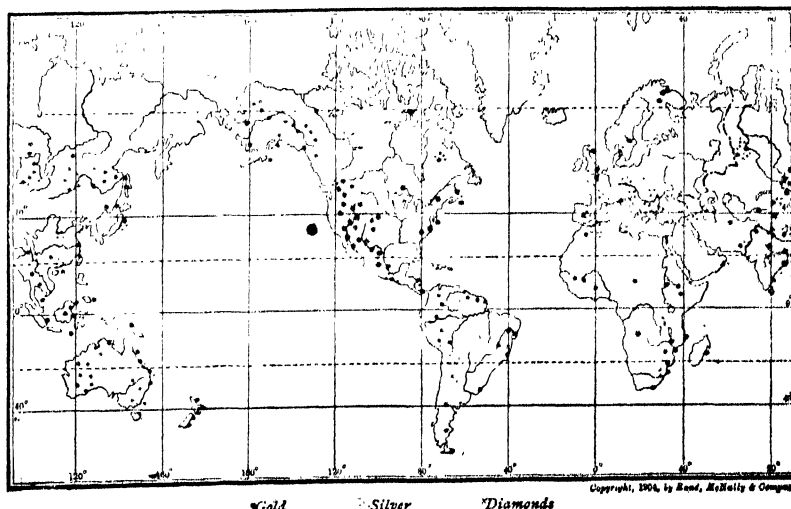


FIG. 585. The distribution of gold, silver, and diamonds.

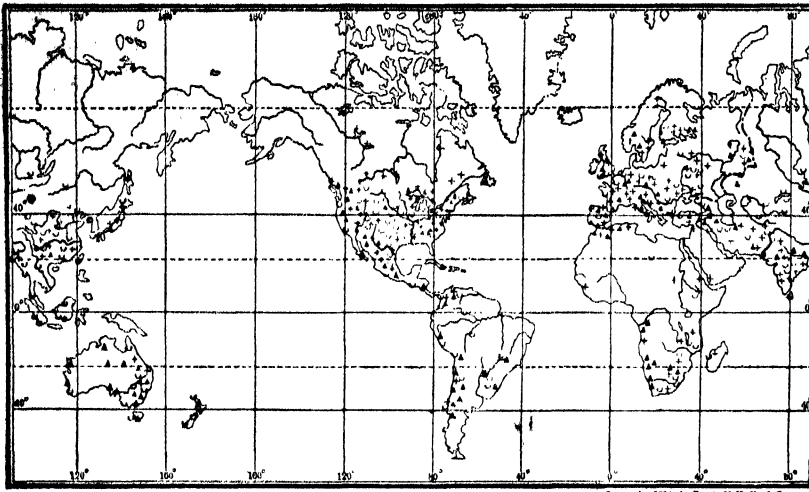


Fig. 587. The distribution of copper, iron, and coal.

Coal and Iron. The raw products already mentioned furnish the chief needs of the

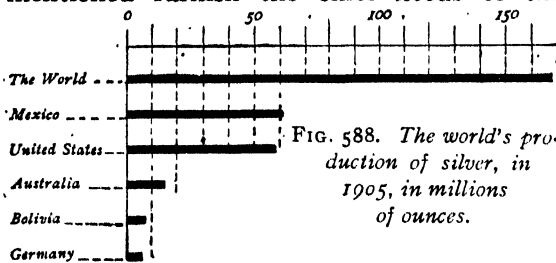


Fig. 588. The world's production of silver, in 1905, in millions of ounces.

manufacturing nations, except for wool, coal, and iron. Many nations with supplies of coal and iron import their food materials largely and devote their attention to manufacturing. The nations with the greatest development of coal and iron mines are the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany. (See Figs. 587, 590, and 591.)

Manufactures. Owing to the supply of raw materials, coal, and iron, and to the inventiveness of the people, the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, and France are the leading manufacturing

nations, sending their finished products to all parts of the world. The exports of the United Kingdom and Germany outrank those of the United States, because our country, with its larger population and rapid progress, consumes a greater proportion of its manufactured products, and imports many manufactured products from other countries. (See Fig. 589.)

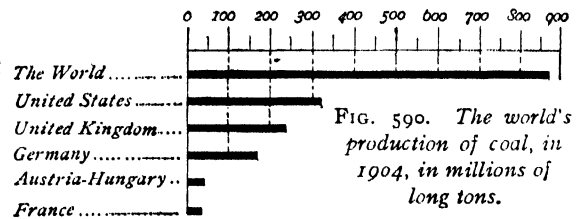


Fig. 590. The world's production of coal, in 1904, in millions of long tons.

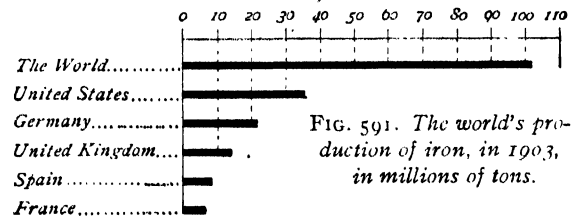
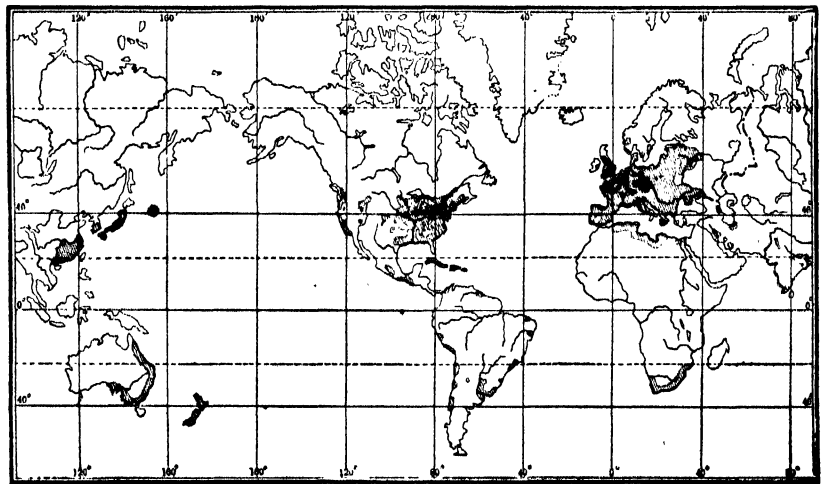


Fig. 591. The world's production of iron, in 1903, in millions of tons.



Most important regions

Less important regions

Fig. 589. The principal manufacturing areas of the world.

THE GREAT NATIONS OF THE WORLD

The leading nations of the world in the order of their commercial importance are the United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, France, and the Netherlands. The trade of the United States has already been considered. (See page 182.)

The United Kingdom. The imports of the United Kingdom are largely from the United States and the British possessions in all parts of the world. They include cereals, provisions, cotton, wool, and lumber. The exports are sent chiefly to the British Colonies and to the other nations of Europe. They are mainly cotton and woolen manufactures and iron and steel goods.

The advantages of the United Kingdom are many. Its geographical position, its climate favorable for continued labor, and its abundant supply of coal, iron, and other raw materials have all led to the development of manufacturing. Its magnificent system of railroads and interior waterways has enabled it to transport its many products to the neighboring seaports at small expense and with little delay. Its extensive colonies, situated in all the climates available for occupation, afford a magnificent market for its products, and have furnished food, raw materials, and tropical products much needed at home.

Germany. The imports of Germany exceed its exports. The principal trade is with the United Kingdom, Russia, Austria-Hungary, the United States, and the Netherlands. Germany receives from the United States food products and cotton.

Germany has many natural advantages. Its great mineral resources have been extensively developed, so that iron is available for manufacturing. The people have employed modern manufacturing processes and have adopted the most modern business methods. The great development of railroads and canals has brought every manufacturing town into ready touch with the ports.

France. The imports of France are chiefly wool, raw silk, coal, cotton, and grain, of which nearly one-sixth in total value comes from the United States. Its exports include silk, cotton, and woolen manufactures and wine, of which the United Kingdom, Belgium, and Germany receive the greater part.

The advantages of France are mainly due to its varied surface, which allows for a variety of industries, and to a climate which favors the growing of silk worms and the raising of grapes. Manufacturing has developed because of the abundance of raw materials and the inventiveness of the people. France has also been favored by its position on the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, and by its system of navigable rivers and canals, which give access to the manufacturing regions.

The Netherlands. As the Netherlands owns the most valuable islands of the East Indies, its colonies rank next to those of the United Kingdom in importance. From these tropical regions it receives products of great value, needed by other countries. These include coffee and Peruvian bark. The imports are chiefly from Germany, the East Indies, Russia, Belgium, and the United Kingdom. About one-half of the exports are sent to Germany; the exports to the United States are insignificant in quantity. Owing to the position of the Netherlands on the coast and to its fine harbors, it receives a vast quantity of goods on their way to the other countries of continental Europe.

Exercises

(1) Select three of the staple food products of the world and write a composition about each under the following headings: (a) Value of product as food; (b) Conditions of climate and surface favorable to its growth; (c) Countries producing it and cities exporting it; (d) Part played by the United States in producing and consuming it. (2) Make a list of the chief tobacco-producing countries. (3) Locate a manufacturing city in each of the leading manufacturing countries.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COLLATERAL READING

The few suggestions for collateral reading given below have been selected with care so as to present only that which is best. No attempt has been made to prepare a list which shall contain all that is available and trustworthy. Such a list would have little practical value for teachers unless a large library were available. The references are given by chapters for convenience in use.

KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS

American Book Company (A. B. C.); D. Appleton & Company (Ap.); A. & C. Black (Bl.); Cassell Publishing Company (C.); The Century Company (Cen.); Ginn & Company (G.); D. C. Heath & Company (H.); Longmans, Green & Company (L. G.); The Macmillan Company (Mac.); Charles Scribner's Sons (S.); Sibley & Company (Si.); Silver, Burdett & Company (S. B. C.).

II. Page 10.

Ball's *Star Land* (C.), The Sun, pp. 1-69.
Jackson's *Astronomical Geography* (H.), Spherical Form of the Earth, Departure from the Spherical Form, pp. 1-9; Dimensions and Distances, pp. 16-21.
Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Shape of the Earth, pp. 8-12.
Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Earth's Form, pp. 3-11.

III. Page 12.

Jackson's *Astronomical Geography* (H.), Latitude and Longitude, pp. 9-13; The Earth's Daily Motion, pp. 28-39; The Inclination of the Earth's Axis, pp. 50-65.
Ball's *Star Land* (C.), The Sun, pp. 44-52.
Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), Day and Night, pp. 13-16.
Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Earth's Motions, pp. 11-12.

IV. Page 16.

Jackson's *Astronomical Geography* (H.), Zones, pp. 13-15; The Sun's Rays and the Earth's Atmosphere, pp. 21-28; The Earth's Yearly Motion, pp. 39-49.
Ball's *Star Land* (C.), The Sun, pp. 52-69.
Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Earth's Motion, pp. 12-17.

V. Page 21.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), The World as a Whole, pp. 1-9; The Larger Features of the Continents, pp. 10-27.
Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), Changes in the Shape of Land and Sea, pp. 141-145.
Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Sea, pp. 86-90.
Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), A General View of the Earth, pp. 32-36; Continents and Islands, pp. 162-173.
Ingersoll's *The Book of the Ocean* (Cen.), The Ocean and Its Origin, pp. 1-7.

VI. and VII. Pages 24-34.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), The Work of Running Water, pp. 81-99; The Work of Standing Water, pp. 113-116.

Buckley's *The Fairy-land of Science* (Ap.), The Two Great Sculptors, pp. 103-121.

Shaler's *First Book of Geology* (H.), Origin of Valleys and Lakes, pp. 113-129.

Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Circulation of Water on the Land, pp. 39-42; Brooks and Rivers, pp. 62-75.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), Running Water, pp. 244-258; Lakes, pp. 258-269; The Work of Running Water, pp. 272-293.

VIII. Page 34.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Plains and Plateaus, pp. 137-143; Mountains, pp. 144-153.

Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), Hills, Mountains, Valleys, and Continents, pp. 107-112.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Relief of the Land, pp. 173-182.

IX. Page 37.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Water Supply, pp. 206-212.

Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), Course of Water Underground, pp. 74-87.

Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), How Springs Are Formed, pp. 42-47; The Work of Water Underground, pp. 47-51.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), Springs and Underground Rivers, pp. 222-232.

X. Page 39.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Volcanoes, pp. 154-164.

Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), Volcanoes, pp. 88-97; Earthquakes, pp. 130-140.

Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Inside of the Earth, pp. 102-109.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), Volcanoes, pp. 196-210; Movements of the Land, pp. 210-216.

XI. Page 42.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), What is Weather and Climate, pp. 171-175; Temperature, pp. 176-184; Climate of the World, pp. 194-197.

Buckley's *The Fairy-land of Science* (Ap.), The Aërial Ocean in Which We Live, pp. 53-64.

Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), The Air, pp. 56-61.

Geikie's *Physical Geography, Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Air, pp. 38-47; The Temperature of the Air, pp. 54-64; How the Surface of the Earth Crumbles Away, pp. 51-62.

Gaye's *The Great World's Farm* (Mac.), Pioneer Laborers, pp. 15-28; Soil Makers, pp. 29-40; Soil Carriers, pp. 41-49; Soil Binders, pp. 50-59; Field Laborers, pp. 60-89.

XII. Page 46.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Winds and Rainfall, pp. 185-188.

Buckley's *The Fairy-land of Science* (Ap.), The Aërial Ocean, pp. 64-75.

Geikie's *Physical Geography*, *Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), Wind, pp. 24-27.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Pressure of the Air, pp. 47-54; The Movements of the Air, pp. 83-94.

XIII. Page 51.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Winds and Rainfall, pp. 188-193.

Buckley's *The Fairy-land of Science* (Ap.), A Drop of Water on Its Travels, pp. 76-102.

Gaye's *The Great World's Farm* (Mac.), Water, pp. 90-104; Deserts, pp. 105-121.

Geikie's *Physical Geography*, *Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Vapor in the Air, pp. 27-39.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Moisture of the Air, pp. 64-83; Winds, pp. 94-102.

XIV. Page 57.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), The Work of Standing Water, pp. 108-111.

Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), Currents of the Air and Sea, pp. 98-106; The Work of Water and Air, pp. 62-65.

Geikie's *Physical Geography*, *Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), The Motions of the Sea, pp. 90-95.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Movements of the Sea, pp. 143-146.

XV. Page 59.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Waves, pp. 100-108; Tides, pp. 111-113.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Movements of the Sea, pp. 137-143 and 147-152.

Ingersoll's *The Book of the Ocean* (Cen.), Waves, Tides, and Currents, pp. 9-26.

XVI. Page 61.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), The Work of Standing Water, pp. 100-108 and 111-113; Movements of the Land, pp. 165-170.

Buckley's *The Fairy-land of Science* (Ap.), The Two Great Sculptors, pp. 121-124.

XVII. Page 62.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), The Work of Ice and Frost, pp. 121-136.

Shaler's *First Book in Geology* (H.), Pebbles, Sand, and Clay, pp. 8-12.

Buckley's *The Fairy-land of Science* (Ap.), The Two Great Sculptors, pp. 124-128.

Geikie's *Physical Geography*, *Science Primer No. IV.* (Ap.), Snow-fields and Glaciers, pp. 75-85.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), Frosts, Snow-fields, Glaciers, pp. 293-314.

XVIII. Page 65.

Herbertson's *Man and His Work* (Mac.), Life in the Tundra or Frozen Desert, pp. 7-14; Life in the Temperate Forests, pp. 15-21; Life in the Steppes, pp. 22-31; Life in the Hot Deserts, pp. 32-36; Life in Equatorial Forests, pp. 37-42.

Redway's *Elementary Physical Geography* (S.), The Geographic Distribution of Plants and Animals, pp. 315-324.

XIX. Page 72.

Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography* (Mac.), The Geographical Distribution of Plants and Animals, pp. 328-337; The Diffusion of Plants and Animals, pp. 337-356.

Redway's *Elementary Physical Geography* (S.), The Geographic Distribution of Plants and Animals, pp. 324-328.

XX. Page 78.

Herbertson's *Man and His Work* (Mac.), The Races of Men, pp. 129-132.

Redway's *Elementary Physical Geography* (S.), Man, pp. 335-345.

XXI. Page 80.

Herbertson's *Man and His Work* (Mac.), Trade and Transport, pp. 98-115.

Dodge's *A Reader in Physical Geography* (L. G.), Centers of Industry, pp. 33-36; Transportation and Power, pp. 222-224.

Trotter's *Lessons in the New Geography* (H.), Commerce, pp. 129-144.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Nature and Conditions of Commerce, pp. 1-4; Natural Conditions Affecting Commerce, pp. 5-16; Human Control of Commerce, pp. 17-36.

Ingersoll's *The Book of the Ocean* (Cen.), Dangers of the Deep, pp. 201-230.

XXII. Page 87.

Gaye's *The Great World's Farm* (Mac.), Man's Work on the Farm, pp. 337-360.

Tarr's *Elementary Physical Geography* (Mac.), Man and Nature, pp. 407-412.

XXIII.-XXXVII. Pages 89-182.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xiii.-xxvi.; Introductory, pp. 1-2.

Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), General View of North America, pp. 9-14.

Shaler's *The Story of Our Continent* (G.).

Lummis' *Some Strange Corners of Our Country* (Cen.).

Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).

XXIV. Page 102.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The United States, pp. 82-84.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), The United States, pp. 37-145.

XXV.-XXVI. Pages 107-118.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Appalachian Barrier, p. 85.

XXVII.-XXVIII. Pages 119-128.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), Mountains of New England, pp. 88-90; The Connecticut Valley, pp. 90-93.

Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), New England, pp. 79-99.

XXIX. Page 129.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Eastern Gateway of the United States, pp. 94-99; The Shenandoah Valley, pp. 99-100.

Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), The Oil Regions, pp. 203-210; The Coal Regions, pp. 211-218; Pittsburg, pp. 218-225.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COLLATERAL READING

XXX. Page 136.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), New York, pp. 119-122; Philadelphia, pp. 122-123; Washington, pp. 123-125; Pittsburgh, pp. 125-126.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), Washington, pp. 14-45; Baltimore, pp. 45-49; Philadelphia, pp. 50-57; New York, pp. 57-75; Virginia, pp. 99-108; Niagara Falls, pp. 195-202.

XXXI. Page 142.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Great Smokies, pp. 100-101; North Carolina, pp. 107-109; South Carolina, pp. 110-114; Cotton Manufacturing, pp. 114-115; The Everglades of Florida, pp. 115-117; Savannah, p. 127.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), The South, pp. 109-135.

XXXII. Page 146.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Cumberland Mountains, pp. 101-103; Chattanooga, pp. 103-104; The Lower Mississippi, pp. 139-143; Texas, pp. 147-149.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), The South, pp. 135-150.

XXXIII. Page 152.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), Mammoth Cave, pp. 104-107; Nebraska, pp. 143-147.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), The Mississippi, pp. 150-159; The Mississippi Valley, pp. 150-164; The Northwest, pp. 164-171; The Great Lakes, pp. 172-195; Chicago, pp. 225-234.

XXXIV. Page 160.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Central Plain, pp. 128-139.

XXXV. Page 165.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Great Divide, pp. 170-171; Yellowstone Park, pp. 171-180; The Wasatch Mountains, pp. 180-182; The Great Basin, pp. 182-184; The Colorado Plateau, pp. 184-187; The Grand Cañon of the Colorado, pp. 187-189; The Navaho Indians, pp. 191-193.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), The Rocky Mountain Region, pp. 235-264; Yellowstone Park, pp. 284-290; Among the Indians, pp. 296-297.

XXXVI. Page 170.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Cascade Mountains, pp. 162-167; Oregon, pp. 167-170; The Mohave Desert, pp. 189-191; California, pp. 193-202.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), California, pp. 264-278; The Pacific Northwest, pp. 278-284.

XXXVII. Page 174.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), Alaska, pp. 21-29; Alaska, pp. 150-153.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), Alaska, pp. 298-306.
Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), Our Hawaiian Possessions, pp. 127-148; The Philippines, pp. 153-213; Samoa, pp. 119-127; Guam, pp. 148-152; Porto Rico, pp. 329-344.
Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), Life in Manila, pp. 104-114; *The Wide World*, The Alaska Eskimo, pp. 114-122.
Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Colonies of the United States, pp. 146-155.

XXXVIII. Page 183.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), The Far North, pp. 5-21, 29; Canada, pp. 30-81, 153-162.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), British America, pp. 306-327.
Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), Canada, pp. 13-148.
Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Canada and New Foundland, pp. 156-162.

XXXIX. Page 191.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of North America* (Bl.), Mexico, pp. 203-222.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), Mexico, pp. 327-345.
Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), Mexico, pp. 151-193.
Youth's Companion Series: *Strange Lands Near Home* (G.), In the Grand Plaza of Mexico, p. 16, A Mexican City, p. 26.
Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Mexico, pp. 247-252.

XL. Page 196.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xiii.-xvi.; Central America, pp. 35-56.
Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Panama, pp. 9-29.
Carpenter's *North America* (A. B. C.), Central America, pp. 345-352.
Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), Central America, pp. 197-215.
Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Central America, pp. 252-256.

XLI. Page 198.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xvi.-xxi.; The West Indies, pp. 1-34.
Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), The West Indies, pp. 319-329; Haiti, pp. 344-352; Jamaica, pp. 352-356; Cuba, pp. 357-370; The Bahamas and Bermudas, pp. 370-380.
Youth's Companion Series: *Strange Lands Near Home* (G.), A Trip to Santo Domingo, p. 8.
Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), The West Indies, pp. 274-279.

XLII.-XLIX. Pages 201-214.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xxi.-xxxiii.; South America, pp. 57-62.
Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), South America, pp. 219-222.
Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).

XLIII. Page 208.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), The Amazon Basin and Brazil, pp. 92-124; Up the Paraná-Paraguay, pp. 133-136.
Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Brazil, pp. 243-327.
Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), The Great Republic of the South, pp. 222-249.
Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Brazil, pp. 259-263.

XLIV. Page 209.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), The Plate Basin and Patagonia, pp. 125-127, 141-159.

Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Argentina, pp. 167-200.

Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), In the Valley of the La Plata, pp. 249-268.

Youth's Companion Series: *Strange Lands Near Home* (G.), The Argentine Capital, p. 97.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Argentina, pp. 263-266.

XLV. Page 210.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), Uruguay, pp. 127-130; Paraguay, pp. 136-141.

Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Uruguay, pp. 201-217; Paraguay, pp. 218-241.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Uruguay, p. 266; Paraguay, p. 267.

XLVI. Page 211.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), Chile, pp. 196-226.

Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Chile, pp. 100-167.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Chile, p. 272-274.

Rupert's *Geographical Reader* (Si.), Overland Routes from Chile to Argentine, pp. 188-191.

XLVII. Page 212.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), The Falkland Islands, pp. 159-162.

XLVIII. Page 212.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), Ecuador, pp. 172-181; Peru, pp. 181-195; Bolivia, pp. 195-196; Galapagos Islands, pp. 226-227.

Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Ecuador, pp. 38-50; Peru, pp. 50-86; Bolivia, pp. 87-99.

Coe's *Our American Neighbors* (S. B. C.), Peru and Bolivia, pp. 287-303.

Youth's Companion Series: *Strange Lands Near Home* (G.), The Carnival in Lima, p. 69, An Odd City in the Andes, p. 75, The Land of the Llama, p. 86.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Ecuador, pp. 270-271; Peru, pp. 271-272; Bolivia, p. 272.

XLIX. Page 213.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Central and South America* (Bl.), The Guianas, pp. 63-91; Colombia, pp. 163-172.

Carpenter's *South America* (A. B. C.), Colombia, pp. 29-38; Venezuela, pp. 327-342; The Guianas, pp. 342-350.

Youth's Companion Series: *Strange Lands Near Home* (G.), A Venezuelan Railway, p. 44.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Venezuela, p. 257-259; The Guianas, p. 259; Colombia, pp. 268-270.

L.-LXII. Pages 215-274.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xv-xxiv.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Across the Atlantic to Europe, pp. 9-15.

Coe's *Modern Europe* (S. B. C.), A Bird's-eye View of Europe, pp. 13-18.

Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).

LI. Page 224.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Ireland, pp. 15-32; Scotland, pp. 32-48; England, pp. 48-84.

Coe's *Modern Europe* (S. B. C.), Pictures of English Life, pp. 18-59; Over the Border, pp. 59-78; Where the Shamrock Grows, pp. 78-91.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Great Britain and Ireland, pp. 163-173.

LII. Page 232.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Ascent of Mount Hekla, pp. 1-3; Eruption of the Great Geyser, pp. 3-4.

LIII. Page 233.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), France, pp. 212-258.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), France, pp. 85-124.

Youth's Companion Series: *The Wide World* (G.), Boys and Girls of Paris, p. 65; *Northern Europe*, A People on Stilts, p. 46, The Eiffel Tower, p. 53, On the Quicksands, p. 61.

LIV. Page 239.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Spain and Portugal, pp. 259-293.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Spain, pp. 428-445; Portugal, pp. 445-452.

Coe's *Modern Europe* (A. B. C.), Spain and Portugal, pp. 278-299.

Youth's Companion Series: *Under Sunny Skies* (G.), Toledo and Cordova, p. 1, Granada, p. 11.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Spain, pp. 235-238; Portugal, pp. 238-239.

LV. Page 243.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Copenhagen, pp. 26-28; Low Countries, pp. 209-211.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Belgium, pp. 125-133; The Netherlands, pp. 133-156; The Land of the Danes, pp. 156-163.

Youth's Companion Series: *Northern Europe* (G.), Scenes in Holland, p. 18, A Holland Dairy, p. 22, A Dutch Market Place, p. 29, Scenes in Belgium, p. 39; *The Wide World*, Dutch Children, p. 57, The Faroe Islands, p. 1.

Dodge's *Hans Brinker and The Land of Pluck* (C.).

Coe's *Modern Europe* (S. B. C.), The Land of Hans Christian Andersen, pp. 119-132; The Land of the Glorious Sunsets, pp. 133-154; The Land of the Wooded Shoe, pp. 154-167.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Belgium and the Netherlands, pp. 193-201.

LVI. Page 247.

Youth's Companion Series: *Northern Europe* (G.), Life in Norway, p. 11; *The Wide World*, A Visit to Sweden, p. 58.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Norway, Sweden, pp. 4-26, 28.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Where the Sun Shines at Midnight, pp. 163-185; Travels in Norway and Sweden, pp. 176-186.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Scandinavia, pp. 202-207.

LVII. Page 251.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Russia, pp. 29-58.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Russia, pp. 311-361.

Starr's *Strange Peoples* (H.), Finns, p. 47.

Youth's Companion Series: *Northern Europe* (G.), *A Russian Village*, p. 109; *The Wide World*, The Rutchbergs of Russia, p. 96.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Russia in Europe, pp. 219-227.

LVIII. Page 256.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), German Empire, pp. 59-89.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), In the German Empire, pp. 186-248; The Upper Danube, pp. 271-280. Coe's *Modern Europe* (S. B. C.), Germany, pp. 167-200, 213-225.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Germany, pp. 174-182.

LIX. Page 262.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Switzerland, pp. 90-111.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Switzerland, pp. 249-271.

Coe's *Modern Europe* (S. B. C.), Among Mountain Peaks and Glaciers, pp. 225-249.

Youth's Companion Series: *The Wide World* (G.), An Alpine Village, p. 79, Life in the Alps, p. 78, An Open-Air Parliament, p. 95.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Switzerland, pp. 208-212.

LX. Page 264.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Italy, pp. 173-208.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Italy, pp. 392-428.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Italy, p. 228.

LXI. Page 268.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), Austria-Hungary, pp. 112-141.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Austria-Hungary, pp. 280-303.

Coe's *Modern Europe* (S. B. C.), Austria, pp. 202-212.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Austria-Hungary, pp. 213-218.

LXII. Page 271.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Europe* (Bl.), The Balkan States, p. 142.

Carpenter's *Europe* (A. B. C.), Servia, Bulgaria, Roumania, pp. 304-309; Turkey, pp. 361-381; Greece, pp. 381-392.

Youth's Companion Series: *Under Sunny Skies* (G.), Young Greeks of To-day, p. 67, The Education of Young Turks, p. 75, Housekeeping in Turkey, p. 79.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), The Balkan States, pp. 240-245.

LXIII.-LXVII. Pages 275-288.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Africa* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xvii.-xl.; Africa, pp. 1-3.

Stanley's *In Darkest Africa* (S.).

Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).

LXIV. Page 280.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Africa* (Bl.), The Barbary States, pp. 5-30; Egypt, pp. 51-58.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Egypt, pp. 312-313; Tripoli, pp. 313-314; Algeria, p. 314; Tunis, pp. 314-315; Morocco, p. 315.

LXV. Page 284.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Africa* (Bl.), Abyssinia, The Nile, and Egypt, pp. 31-51; West Africa, The Niger, and Central Sudan, pp. 60-103; British East Africa and the Lakes of the Nile Basin, pp. 104-133; The Congo, pp. 135-161; The Zambezi Basin and the Nyassa-Tanganyika Plateau, pp. 162-192.

Starr's *Strange Peoples* (H.), Negroes, p. 128; Negroids, p. 134; Pygmies, p. 138.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Tropical Africa, pp. 315-317.

LXVI. Page 286.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Africa* (Bl.), South Africa, pp. 192-232.

Starr's *Strange Peoples* (H.), Bushmen and Hottentots, p. 143.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), South Africa, pp. 317-321.

LXVII. Page 288.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Africa* (Bl.), African Islands, pp. 233-246.

Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), Mauritius and Reunion, pp. 271-274; Madagascar, pp. 274-280; West African Islands, pp. 292-302.

LXVIII.-LXXVIII. Pages 289-316.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Introduction, pp. xv.-xxxvi.

Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), From America to Japan, pp. 9-14.

Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), General View, pp. 13-17.

Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).

LXIX. Page 295.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Siberia, pp. 1-26; Trans-Caucasia, pp. 26-42; The Mountains Bordering India, pp. 124-127.

Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), The Great Siberian Railway, pp. 241-251.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Siberia, pp. 296-297; Caucasasia, pp. 297-298.

LXX. Page 299.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Turkish Asia, pp. 42-64, 71-82; Arabia, pp. 65-71.

Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), Arabia, pp. 273-281; Palestine, pp. 282-289; Turkey in Asia, pp. 290-297.

Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), The Home of the Arab, pp. 273-286; The Lands of the Bible, pp. 287-324.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Asiatic Turkey, pp. 245-246.

Youth's Companion Series: *Under Sunny Skies* (G.), In the Fig Country, p. 88, Syrian Sweetmeats, p. 132.

LXXI. Page 302.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Persia, pp. 82-94; The Mountains Bordering India, pp. 112-120.

Smith's *Life in Asia* (A. B. C.), The Land of the Lion and the Sun, pp. 253-269; Turkestan, Afghanistan, Baluchistan, pp. 270-273.

Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), The Fire Worshipers, p. 129.

Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Persia, p. 298.

LXXII. Page 303.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), The Mountains Bordering India, pp. 120-124, 128-179.
 Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), India, pp. 202-256.
 Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), The Indian Empire, pp. 18-105.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), India, pp. 289-296.

LXXIII. Page 307.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), India and Ceylon, pp. 179-188.
 Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), Ceylon, pp. 264-271.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Ceylon, p. 296.

LXXIV. Page 308.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), The Indo-Chinese Peninsula, pp. 189-219.
 Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), Siam, pp. 162-178; Malay Peninsula, pp. 179-185; Burma, pp. 185-201.
 Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), Singapore, pp. 257-264.
 Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), Indo-China, pp. 115-131.
 Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), Malayan Child Life, p. 92, Siam, p. 1, Christmas in the Tropics, pp. 84-91.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), The Straits Settlements, p. 300; Siam, p. 301; French Indo-China, p. 301.

LXXV. Page 309.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Central Asia North of the Himalayas, pp. 95-100, 102-111; China, pp. 220-261.
 Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), A School in China, p. 16, Country Life in China, p. 29, A Chinese Visit, p. 36; *The Wide World*, In Chinese Streets, p. 14, Dining with a Mandarin, p. 20.
 Rupert's *Geographical Reader* (Si.), China and the Chinese, pp. 282-290; Korea, pp. 294-296.
 Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), China, pp. 102-161, Tibet, pp. 257-264.
 Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), China, pp. 131-181.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), China, pp. 283-288.

LXXVI. Page 313.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Korea, pp. 261-264.
 Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), Korea, pp. 76-92.
 Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), The Hermit Kingdom, pp. 232-241.
 Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), Korea and Its Army, p. 45, Korean Ways, p. 53.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Korea, p. 301.

LXXVII. Page 314.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Asia* (Bl.), Japan, pp. 264-282.
 Carpenter's *Asia* (A. B. C.), Japan, pp. 15-75.
 Smith's *Life in Asia* (S. B. C.), Japan, pp. 181-232.
 Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), Home Life in Japan, p. 57, A Fair Lady of Japan, p. 65; *The Wide World*, The Jinrikisha of Japan, p. 28, A Japanese Home, p. 33.

LXXVIII. Page 315.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Australia and Oceania* (Bl.), The Malay Archipelago, pp. 1-35; New Guinea, pp. 36-42.
 Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), New Guinea, pp. 95-104; Borneo, pp. 213-221; Dutch East Indies, pp. 222-233; Java, pp. 233-249; Sumatra, pp. 249-256.
 Youth's Companion Series: *Toward the Rising Sun* (G.), The Head Hunters of Borneo, p. 77.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), The Dutch East Indies, pp. 301-302.

LXXIX. Page 317.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Australia and Oceania* (Bl.), Australia, pp. 43-137.
 Rupert's *Geographical Reader* (Si.), Australia, pp. 351-364.
 Kellogg's *Australia and the Islands of the Sea* (S. B. C.).
 Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), Australia, pp. 11-64.
 Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Australia, pp. 303-308.

LXXX. Page 324.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Australia and Oceania* (Bl.), New Zealand, pp. 138-156.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), New Zealand, pp. 308-310.
 Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), Tasmania, pp. 65-73; New Zealand, pp. 73-90.

LXXXI. Page 325.

Herbertson's *Descriptive Geography of Australia and Oceania* (Bl.), The Pacific Islands, pp. 157-207.
 Carpenter's *Australia, Our Colonies, and Other Islands of the Sea* (A. B. C.), New Caledonia, pp. 91-95; German Islands of Pacific, pp. 104-111; British Possessions of Pacific, pp. 111-119.
 Adam's *Elementary Commercial Geography* (Ap.), Oceania, pp. 310-311.

LXXXII. Page 327.

Lyde's *Man and His Markets* (Mac.).

Other Important Cities in Each of the Political Divisions of the United States—Continued

	POPULATION
Butte Mont.	39,165
Cambridge, Mass.	104,839
Camden, N. J.	94,538
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	32,811
Charleston, S. C.	58,833
Charleston, W. Va.	22,996
Charlotte, N. C.	34,014
Chattanooga, Tenn.	44,604
Cheyenne, Wyo.	11,320
Colorado Springs, Colo.	29,078
Columbia, S. C.	26,319
Columbus, Ohio	181,548
Concord, N. H.	21,497
Covington, Ky.	53,270
Council Bluffs, Iowa	20,292
Cumberland, Md.	21,839
Dallas, Tex.	92,104
Davenport, Iowa	43,028
Dayton, Ohio	116,577
Decatur, Ill.	31,140
Denver, Colo.	213,381
Des Moines, Iowa	86,368
Dover, N. H.	13,247
Dubuque, Iowa	38,494
Duluth, Minn.	78,466
East St. Louis, Ill.	58,547
Elizabeth, N. J.	73,400
El Paso, Tex.	39,279
Erie, Pa.	66,525
Evansville, Ind.	69,647
Everett, Wash.	24,814
Fall River, Mass.	119,295
Fargo, N. Dak.	14,331
Fort Smith, Ark.	23,975
Fort Wayne, Ind.	63,033
Fort Worth, Tex.	73,312
Galveston, Tex.	39,981
Grand Forks, N. Dak.	12,478
Grand Rapids, Mich.	112,571
Great Falls, Mont.	11,948
Hagerstown, Md.	16,507
Harrisburg, Pa.	64,186
Hartford, Conn.	98,915
Helena, Mont.	12,515
Honolulu, Hawaii	52,183
Hot Springs, Ark.	14,434
Houston, Tex.	75,800
Huntington, W. Va.	34,161
Jackson, Miss.	21,262
Jacksonville, Fla.	57,699
Johnstown, Pa.	55,482
Joliet, Ill.	34,670
Joplin, Mo.	32,073
Kalamazoo, Mich.	39,437
Kansas City, Kans.	85,331
Knoxville, Tenn.	39,346
La Crosse, Wis.	25,477
Leavenworth, Kans.	10,363
Lewiston, Idaho	6,043
Lewiston, Me.	26,247
Lexington, Ky.	35,099
Lincoln, Neb.	43,073
Little Rock, Ark.	45,941
Lowell, Mass.	106,294
Lynn, Mass.	89,336
Macor, Ga.	40,665
Manchester, N. H.	70,063
Manila, Philippine Islands	219,928
Memphis, Tenn.	131,105
Meridian, Miss.	23,285
Mobile, Ala.	51,521
Montgomery, Ala.	38,136
Muskogee, Okla.	25,278
Nashua, N. H.	26,005
Nashville, Tenn.	110,364
New Bedford, Mass.	96,652
New Britain, Conn.	43,916
New Haven, Conn.	123,605
Newport, Ky.	30,309
Nome, Alaska	2,600
Norfolk, Va.	67,452
Oakland, Cal.	159,174
Ogden, Utah	25,580
Oklahoma City, Okla.	64,205
Omaha, Neb.	124,096
Oshkosh, Wis.	33,062
Parkersburg, W. Va.	17,842
Patterson, N. J.	125,600
Pawtucket, R. I.	51,622
Pensacola, Fla.	22,982

	POPULATION
Peoria, Ill.	66,950
Phoenix, Ariz.	11,134
Pine Bluff, Ark.	15,102
Pocatello, Idaho	9,110
Portland, Me.	58,571
Portland, Ore.	207,214
Portsmouth, Va.	33,190
Pueblo, Colo.	44,395
Quincy, Ill.	36,537
Racine, Wis.	38,002
Raleigh, N. C.	19,218
Reading, Pa.	90,071
Reno, Nev.	10,867
Richmond, Va.	127,628
Roanoke, Va.	34,874
Rockford, Ill.	45,401
Roswell, N. Mex.	6,172
Rutland, Vt.	13,546
Sacramento, Cal.	44,696
Saginaw, Mich.	50,310
St. Joseph, Mo.	77,403
St. Paul, Minn.	214,744
Salem, Ore.	14,004
Salt Lake City, Utah	92,777
San Antonio, Tex.	96,014
San Juan, Porto Rico	49,716
Savannah, Ga.	95,064
Schenectady, N. Y.	72,826
Scranton, Pa.	129,867
Sheridan, Wyo.	8,408
Shreveport, La.	28,016
Sioux City, Iowa	47,828
Sioux Falls, S. Dak.	14,094
South Bend, Ind.	53,684
South Omaha, Nebr.	20,259
Spartanburg, S. C.	17,517
Spokane, Wash.	104,402
Springfield, Ill.	51,073
Springfield, Mo.	35,291
Superior, Wis.	40,384
Syracuse, N. Y.	137,249
Tacoma, Wash.	83,743
Tampa, Fla.	37,782
Terre Haute, Ind.	58,157
Toledo, Ohio	168,497
Topeka, Kans.	43,684
Trenton, N. J.	90,815
Trinidad, Colo.	10,204
Troy, N. Y.	76,813
Tucson, Ariz.	13,193
Utica, N. Y.	74,419
Vicksburg, Miss.	20,814
Waterbury, Conn.	73,141
Wheeling, W. Va.	41,641
Wichita, Kans.	52,450
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	67,105
Wilmington, Del.	87,411
Wilmington, N. C.	25,748
Winona, Minn.	18,583
Worcester, Mass.	145,086
Yonkers, N. Y.	70,803
Youngstown, Ohio	70,066

Twenty-five Largest Cities in the World
(Largely based on Statesman's Year Book, 1910)

	POPULATION
1. London, England	7,429,749
2. New York, U. S. A.	4,766,883
3. Paris, France	2,761,393
4. Tokyo, Japan	2,186,070
5. Chicago, U. S. A.	2,185,283
6. Berlin, Germany	2,101,013
7. Vienna, Austria	2,084,888
8. St. Petersburg, Russia	1,678,000
9. Philadelphia, U. S. A.	1,540,008
10. Moscow, Russia	1,350,254
11. Osaka, Japan	1,226,590
12. Buenos Aires, Argentine Rep.	1,189,252
13. Constantinople, Turkey	1,106,000
14. Calcutta, India	1,026,987
15. Singan-fu, China	1,000,000
16. Canton, China	900,000
17. Glasgow, Scotland	874,021
18. Hankow, China	820,000
19. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	811,263
20. Hamburg, Germany	802,791
21. Bombay, India	775,006
22. Warsaw, Russia	756,426
23. Tientsin-fu, China	750,000
24. Budapest, Austria-Hungary	731,322
25. Peking, China	700,000

Other Large Cities in the Different Countries of the World
(Largely based on Statesman's Year Book, 1910)

	POPULATION
1. Adelaide, Australia	178,300
2. Aleppo, Turkey	800,000
3. Alexandria, Egypt	338,246
4. Algiers, Algeria	138,240
5. Amsterdam, Holland	505,589
6. Antananarivo, Madagascar	72,000
7. Antwerp, Belgium	314,135
8. Arequipa, Peru	37,000
9. Asuncion, Paraguay	60,239
10. Athens, Greece	167,479
11. Auckland, New Zealand	82,101
12. Bagdad, Turkey	145,000
13. Bahia, Brazil	230,000
14. Baku, Asiatic Russia	179,131
15. Bangkok, Siam	500,000
16. Barcelona, Spain	333,000
17. Barranquilla, Colombia	49,200
18. Basel, Switzerland	139,600
19. Batavia, Java	138,531
20. Beirut, Syria	120,000
21. Belfast, Ireland	349,186
22. Belgrade, Servia	77,816
23. Bergen, Norway	72,251
24. Birmingham, England	583,629
25. Bogota, Colombia	123,300
26. Bordeaux, France	251,917
27. Breslau, Germany	479,004
28. Bridgetown, Barbados	35,300
29. Bristol, England	377,648
30. Brussels, Belgium	637,807
31. Bukarest, Roumania	300,000
32. Cairo, Egypt	654,476
33. Callao, Peru	31,000
34. Cape Town, U. of S. A.	91,973
35. Caracas, Venezuela	74,429
36. Cardiff, Wales	105,351
37. Christiania, Norway	227,685
38. Cologne, Germany	428,722
39. Colombo, Ceylon	158,222
40. Concepcion, La, Chile	55,330
41. Copenhagen, Denmark	51,134
42. Damascus, Syria	260,000
43. Dresden, Germany	516,996
44. Dublin, Ireland	398,356
45. Dundee, Scotland	162,409
46. Durban, U. of S. A.	60,242
47. Edinburgh, Scotland	355,366
48. Fez, Morocco	149,000
49. Geneva, Switzerland	121,200
50. Genoa, Italy	275,000
51. George Town, British Guiana	53,176
52. Ghent, Belgium	162,761
53. Gothenburg, Sweden	162,480
54. Guadalajara, Mexico	101,008
55. Guayaquil, Ecuador	80,000
56. Haridrabad, India	448,466
57. Halifax, Nova Scotia	40,813
58. Hanoi, Indo-China	150,000
59. Havana, Cuba	297,150
60. Helsingfors, Finland	117,317
61. Hobart, Tasmania	24,551
62. Hong-kong, China (British)	329,650
63. Jerusalem, Syria	70,000
64. Johannesburg, U. of S. A.	158,580
65. Kimberley, U. of S. A.	34,331
66. Kingston, Jamaica	44,462
67. Kyoto, Japan	424,462
68. La Paz, Bolivia	78,836
69. Leeds, England	484,012
70. Leipzig, Germany	503,678
71. Lhasa, Tibet	17,000
72. Liege, Belgium	175,870
73. Lille, France	207,602
74. Lima, Peru	140,884
75. Lisbon, Portugal	356,000
76. Liverpool, England	760,357
77. Lodz, Russian Poland	351,579
78. Lourenço Marques, Port. East Africa	9,849
79. Lucknow, India	264,049
80. Lyons, France	472,114
81. Madras, India	500,346
82. Madrid, Spain	530,835
83. Malaga, Spain	130,109
84. Manchester, England	653,431
85. Maracaibo, Venezuela	34,284
86. Marcellas, France	517,498
87. Mecca, Arabia	60,000
88. Melbourne, Australia	549,500
89. Mexico, Mexico	347,721
90. Milan, Italy	584,000

Other Large Cities in the Different Countries of the World— Continued

	POPULATION
91. Montevideo, Uruguay	316,000
92. Montreal, Canada	267,730
93. Mukden, Manchuria, China	158,132
94. Munich, Germany	538,983
95. Nagoya, Japan	378,231
96. Naples, Italy	506,000
97. Odessa, Russia	449,673
98. Oporto, Portugal	167,953
99. Ottawa, Canada	50,928
100. Palermo, Italy	319,000
101. Prague, Austria	233,649
102. Pretoria, U. of S. A.	21,101
103. Quebec, Canada	68,840
104. Quito, Ecuador	70,000
105. Rome, Italy	575,000
106. Rosario, Argentine Republic	150,000
107. Rotterdam, The Netherlands	411,635
108. Santiago, Chile	332,724
109. Santiago, Cuba	57,443
110. São Paulo, Brazil	348,000
111. Seville, Spain	148,313
112. Sheffield, England	470,958
113. Singapore, Straits Settlements	238,555
114. Smyrna, Turkey	201,000
115. Sofia, Bulgaria	100,000
116. Soul, Chosen (Korea)	150,000
117. Southampton, England	124,667
118. Stettin, Germany	224,119
119. Stockholm, Sweden	339,582
120. Surabaya, Java	150,198
121. Sydney, Australia	592,100
122. Tabriz, Persia	200,000
123. Tashkent, Asiatic Russia	155,673
124. Teheran, Persia	280,000
125. The Hague, The Netherlands	259,012
126. Tiflis, Asiatic Russia	150,590
127. Toronto, Canada	208,040
128. Trieste, Austria	221,993
129. Tripoli, Tripoli	30,000
130. Tunis, Tunis	227,519
131. Turin, Italy	371,000
132. Valencia, Spain	213,530
133. Valencia, Venezuela	38,654
134. Valparaiso, Chile	162,447
135. Vancouver, Canada	26,133
136. Venice, Italy	160,000
137. Wellington, New Zealand	63,807
138. Winnipeg, Canada	42,340
139. Yokohama, Japan	394,303
140. Zansibar, Zansibar	55,750
141. Zürich, Switzerland	183,500

Principal Rivers of the World

NORTH AMERICA

(Based on Longman's Gazetteer of the World)

	APPROXIMATE MATE LENGTH IN MILES	APPROXIMATE AREA DRAINED, IN SQUARE MILES
Missouri-Mississippi	4,104	1,238,642
Yukon	2,950	440,000
Colorado	8,000	267,000
Rio Grande	1,800	145,200
Columbia	1,400	260,000
Saskatchewan-Nelson	7,392	300,000
Athabaska-Mackenzie	1,700	677,000
St. Lawrence	1,034	207,000

SOUTH AMERICA

Amazon	3,415	2,320,000
Paraná-L. Plata	1,770	1,200,000
São Francisco	1,800	397,600
Orinoco	1,550	365,000

EUROPE

Volga	2,325	563,300
Danube	1,800	315,000
Dnieper	1,334	302,800
Don	1,153	166,130
Northern Dvina	1,700	134,000
Dniester	853	16,510
Elbe	810	86,600
Rhine	780	55,340
Elbe	652	73,900
Vistula	566	31,864
Teser	558	43,300
Oder	543	46,756
Loire	504	38,000
Rhone	485	30,028
Seine	478	26,800

ASIA

	APPROXIMATE MATE LENGTH IN MILES	APPROXIMATE AREA DRAINED, IN SQUARE MILES
Ob	3,235	1,150,870
Yangtze-kiang	3,000	700,000
Lena	2,860	908,980
Amur	2,700	787,000
Mekong	2,600	350,000
Yenisei	2,500	702,300
Hwang-ho	2,300	387,150
Indus	2,000	360,050
Brahmaputra	1,800	360,000
Ganges	1,455	397,300

AFRICA

Nile	3,670	1,620,000
Congo	2,800	1,000,000
Niger	2,600	780,000
Zambezi	1,600	550,000

AUSTRALIA

Darling	1,160	108,000
Murray	1,100	270,000

Principal Lakes of the World

NORTH AMERICA

	AREA IN SQ. MILES	ALTITUDE IN FEET
Superior	31,200	602
Huron	23,800	581
Michigan	22,450	581
Great Bear	14,000	391
Erie	9,060	573
Winnipeg	9,400	710
Ontario	7,240	246
Great Slave	7,100	520
Nicaragua	2,075	106
Great Salt	2,560	4,218

SOUTH AMERICA

Titicaca	3,261	12,500
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EUROPE

Ladoga	7,000	55
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ASIA

Caspian Sea	169,383	861
Lake Aral	26,166	158
Baikal	13,197	1,400
Dead Sea	353	1,2901

1 Below sea level. 2 Salt.

AFRICA

Victoria Nyanza	32,167	3,300
Nyassa	10,000	1,577
Tanganyika	14,000	2,670
Chad	10,400	850

Principal Mountains of the World

NORTH AMERICA

	WHERE LOCATED	HEIGHT IN FEET
Mt. McKinley	Alaska	20,464
Mt. Logan	Canada	19,539
Orizaba	Mexico	18,314
Mt. St. Elias	Alaska-Yukon frontier	18,024
Popocatepetl	Mexico	17,550
Wrangell	Alaska	17,500
Mt. Whitney	California	14,502
Massive Mountain	Colorado	14,424
Mt. Shasta	California	14,380
Mt. Rainier	Washington	14,363
Longs Peak	Colorado	14,271
Pikes Peak	Colorado	14,108
Fremont Peak	Wyoming	13,790
Mt. Hood	Oregon	11,223

SOUTH AMERICA

Aconcagua	Argentine Rep.	22,860
Chimborazo	Ecuador	20,498
Misti	Peru	20,320
Cotopaxi	Ecuador	19,480
Tolima, Nevado de Colombia		18,500

EUROPE

	WHERE LOCATED	HEIGHT IN FEET
Mont Blanc	France	15,780
Monte Rosa	Swiss-Italian Frontier	15,215
Mulachacen	Spain	11,781
Pic de Nethou	Spain	11,170
Mt. Etna	Italy	10,865
Mt. Vesuvius	Italy	5,060

ASIA

Mt. Everest	Himalayas	29,002
Godwin-Austen	Himalayas	28,265
Kanchenjanga	Himalayas	28,156
Mustagh-ata	Pamirs	25,800
Elbruz	Russia	18,525
Demavend	Persia	18,200
Ararat	Armenia	16,925
Fuji-yama	Japan	12,440
Mt. Hermon	Palestine	9,050

AFRICA

Mt. Kenia	Brit. E. Africa	19,300
		19,720
Kilima-njaro	Ger. E. Africa	19,270
Mt. Ruwenzori	Brit. E. Africa	16,600
Ras Dashan	Abyssinia	15,000
		15,500
Tizi Tamjurt	Morocco	14,650
		15,150
Mongo Ma Loba	Kamerun	13,000
Montaux Sources	U. of S. A. (Western frontier of Natal)	10,000

OCEANIA

Mauna Kea	Hawaiian Islands	13,953
Mauna Loa	Hawaiian Islands	13,700
Kinabalu	Borneo	13,680
Mount Victoria	New Guinea	13,205
Mt. Cook	New Zealand	12,350

Total Length of Railroads of the World

(Based on Statesman's Year Book for 1906)

COUNTRIES	LENGTH IN MILES
North America	248,046
Europe	189,001
Asia	48,244
South America	29,664
Australia and Islands of the Pacific	17,164
Africa	13,993
	546,092

Length of Railroads in the Different Countries

COUNTRIES	LENGTH IN MILES
Argentine Republic	12,000
Austria-Hungary	23,729
Belgium	2,830
Belgian Congo	300
Bolivia	700
Brazil	10,408
British Empire	95,295
United Kingdom	22,634
India and other Asiatic possessions	28,111
Canada	10,611
Australia, Commonwealth of	14,577
British Africa	6,800
New Zealand	2,487
Newfoundland and British West Indies	872
British Guiana (South America)	104
Chile	2,873
China, Republic of	2,870
Colombia	411
Costa Rica	340
Cuba	1,479
Denmark	1,993
Ecuador	128
French Republic	33,004
France	28,580
Algeria and other African posses-	
sions	3,424
Indo-China	900
New Caledonia (Pacific Ocean)	100

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Length of Railroads in the Different Countries— Continued

COUNTRIES	LENGTH IN MILES
German Empire	33,530
Germany	32,804
German Possessions in Africa	505
Kiao-chow, China	230
Greece	700
Guatemala	400
Haiti and Dominican Republic	145
Honduras	69
Italy	10,068
Japan	4,889
Chosen (Korea)	618
Luxemburg	326
Mexico	12,209
The Netherlands (Kingdom)	3,273
The Netherlands (Europe)	1,817
Dutch East Indies (Asia)	1,456
Nicaragua	160
Norway	1,548
Ottoman Empire	7,544
Turkey in Europe	2,890
Turkey in Asia	2,186
Egypt	2,468
Panama	47
Paraguay	156
Peru	1,146
Portugal and Portuguese East Africa (487)	1,973
Roumania	2,000
Russian Empire	42,559
Russia in Europe	30,187
Russia in Asia	6,372
Salvador	100
Servia	300
Siam	350
Spain	8,520
Sweden	7,031
Switzerland	2,808
United States (Republic of)	212,862
United States	212,340
Alaska	112
Porto Rico	153
Hawaii	128
Philippines	120
Uruguay	1,210
Venezuela	529

Some Ocean Trade Routes of the World

(From Bartholomew's Twentieth Century Cities' Atlas of the World)

POINT OF DEPARTURE	DESTINATION	DISTANCE IN MILES	APPROXIMATE TIME, IN DAYS
Alexandria	London	2,275	6
Alexandria	Liverpool	3,027	14
Algiers	Liverpool	1,664	8
Apia (Samoa)	San Francisco	4,200	14
Bahia	Southampton	4,505	16
Bahia	Liverpool	4,430	19
Batavia	Marseilles	7,178	27
Batavia	Southampton	8,330	30
Bombay	London	6,658	25
Bombay	Liverpool	6,255	27
Bombay	Marseilles	4,924	16
Boston	Glasgow	2,785	10
Boston	Liverpool	2,932	9
Buenos Aires	Southampton	6,126	22
Buenos Aires	Liverpool	6,253	25
Calcutta	Liverpool	7,985	34
Callao	Liverpool	9,805	40
Cape Town	Southampton	6,010	19-24
Christiania	Hull	558	8
Colon	Southampton	5,252	19
Constantinople	Liverpool	3,015	10
Copenhagen	Leith, Hull	616	58 hrs
Fiji Islands	Vancouver	5,235	18
Fiji Islands	Sydney	1,725	6
Genoa	Southampton	2,134	8
Genoa	Glasgow	2,254	10
Gibraltar	London	1,209	5
Ostend	London	644	3
Halifax	Liverpool	2,415	7



A map showing the standard time belts in the United States and Canada

POINT OF DEPARTURE	DESTINATION	DISTANCE IN MILES	APPROXIMATE TIME, IN DAYS
Havana	New Orleans	585	2
Hobart	London	11,051	41
Hong-kong	Southampton	10,075	39
Hong-kong	Marseilles	8,180	30
Jamaica	Southampton	4,702	16
Lisbon	Liverpool	973	4
Lisbon	Southampton	855	3
Madagascar	Marseilles	6,077	25
Manila	Liverpool	9,575	32
Melbourne	Southampton	11,031	45
Melbourne	Marseilles	9,720	35
Montevideo	Southampton	6,170	22
Montevideo	Liverpool	6,005	25
Montreal	Liverpool	2,850	9
New Orleans	London	4,600	14
New Orleans	Liverpool	4,615	14
New York	Liverpool	3,170	6
New York	Glasgow	3,280	8
New York	Southampton	3,110	6
Odessa	Liverpool	3,335	12
Pernambuco	Liverpool	3,674	15
Portland (Me.)	Liverpool	2,770	8
Port Said	Liverpool	4,050	14
Port Said	Marseilles	1,568	5
Quebec	Liverpool	2,855	8
Rio de Janeiro	Liverpool	5,150	19
Shanghai	Southampton	10,045	43
Shanghai	Marseilles	9,050	36
Shanghai	Vancouver	4,300	19
Singapore	Southampton	8,658	33
Stockholm	London	1,171	4
Suez	Liverpool	and 903	
Suez	Marseilles	3,274	6
Sydney	Southampton	12,491	49
Sydney	Marseilles	10,396	34
Valparaiso	Liverpool	8,748	37
Vera Cruz	Liverpool	5,031	20
Vladivostok	Southampton	11,748	50
Wellington	London	13,345	46
Yokohama	London	11,601	52
Zanzibar	London	6,285	40
Zanzibar	Marseilles	4,745	30
Zanzibar	Hamburg	7,130	36

Standard Time

(Based on Hasell's Annual, 1910)

Generally speaking, Greenwich time, or Greenwich time plus or minus an integral

number of hours, is in use in most of the leading countries of the world.

Greenwich time is used in	Great Britain Spain Belgium Holland
One hour faster than Greenwich in	Italy Austria Switzerland Germany Denmark Norway
Two hours faster than Greenwich in	Cape of Good Hope The Transvaal Orange Free State Natal Turkey Egypt
Eight hours faster than Greenwich in	West Australia Shanghai
Nine hours faster than Greenwich in	Japan
Nine and one-half hours faster than Greenwich in	South Australia
Ten hours faster than Greenwich in	Victoria Queensland New South Wales
Eleven hours faster than Greenwich in	New Zealand

In the United States and the Dominion of Canada, Greenwich time is used. These countries extend over so many degrees of longitude, however, that they are necessarily divided into five belts, in which the time is slower than Greenwich time by four, five, six, seven, and eight hours, respectively. The time in these belts is known as intercolonial, eastern, central, mountain, and Pacific time. The lines dividing the belts have been determined by the railroads. People traveling west in the United States set their watches back one hour when crossing from one belt to the next. Traveling east they set them forward.

REFERENCE TABLES

The Leading Commercial Countries

(Based on the Statesman's Year Book, 1904, and Chisholm's Handbook of Commercial Geography.)

COUNTRY.	PRINCIPAL PRODUCTS.	PRINCIPAL EXPORTS.	TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS.
Afghanistan..	Fruits, felt, wool.	Horses, fruits, grain.
Algeria.	Wine, wool, potatoes.	Wine, wool, potatoes.	\$ 62,490,000
Argentine Republic ..	Animal products, wheat.	Animal products, wheat.	178,128,000
Australia ..	Wool, gold, wheat.	Gold, wool.	348,120,000
Austria-Hungary ..	Cereals, coal, iron.	Sugar, animals, animal products, coal.	386,544,000
Belgium ..	Cereals, coal, iron.	Coal, woolens, linens.	787,915,000
Bolivia ..	Minerals, rubber.	Silver, tin, rubber.	11,777,000
Brasil ..	Coffee, rubber, tobacco.	Coffee, rubber, tobacco.	174,936,000
Bulgaria ..	Wheat, wine, tobacco.	Grain, animal food, food products.	20,737,000
Canada ..	Grain, timber, metals.	Timber, cheese, wheat.	225,850,000
Cape of Good Hope ..	Diamonds, gold, wool.	Diamonds, gold, wool.	83,789,000
Ceylon ..	Rice, tea, cocoa.	Tea, coconut products, plumbago.	27,975,000
Chile ..	Minerals, cereals, guano.	Nitre, copper, iodine.	66,917,000
China ..	Cereals, tea, silk.	Silk, tea, cotton.	148,354,000
Chosen ..	Gold, grain, ginseng.	Gold, rice, ginseng.	4,158,000
Colombia ..	Gums, coffee, precious metals.	Gums, coffee, gold.	3,417,000
Costa Rica ..	Coffee, bananas.	Coffee, bananas.	5,433,000
Cuba ..	Sugar, tobacco.	Sugar, tobacco, cigars.	64,949,000
Denmark ..	Dairy products, cereals.	Provisions, animals, cereals.	119,611,000
Dominican Republic ..	Sugar, cacao, tobacco.	Sugar, cacao, tobacco.	5,224,000
Dutch East Indies ..	Coffee, tea, sugar.	Coffee, tea, sugar.	102,097,000
Ecuador ..	Cacao, ivory nuts, coffee.	Cacao, ivory nuts, coffee.	8,872,000
Egypt ..	Cotton, cereals, sugar.	Cotton, cereals, provisions.	94,445,000
France ..	Cereals, wine, sugar.	Textiles, yarn, wine.	1,119,400,000
Germany ..	Cereals, coal, iron, potatoes.	Textiles, hardware, chemicals.	1,155,080,000
Greece ..	Cereals, fruits, tobacco.	Currants, ores, olive oil.	18,799,000
Guatemala ..	Coffee, sugar, bananas.	Coffee, timber, hides.	9,032,000
Haiti ..	Coffee, woods, cacao.	Coffee, woods, cacao.	12,760,000
Hawaii ..	Sugar, rice, coffee.	Sugar, rice, coffee.	26,228,000
India ..	Cereals, cotton, oil-seeds.	Cotton, jute, rice, oil-seeds.	279,514,000
Italy ..	Silk, fruit, grain.	Silk, olive oil, sulphur.	294,484,000
Jamaica ..	Sugar, coffee, fruit.	Fruit, sugar, rum.	11,003,000
Japan ..	Cereals, tea, silk.	Silks, cotton yarn, coal.	133,928,000
Madagascar ..	Gold, cattle, rice.	Gold, cattle, raffia.	2,629,000
Mexico ..	Metals, henequen, animals.	Metals, henequen, animals.	99,955,000
Morocco ..	Grain, eggs, almonds.	Grain, eggs, almonds.	7,487,000
Natal ..	Coal, sugar, cereals.	Coal, wool, sugar.	34,651,000
Netherlands ..	Cereals, textiles, dairy products.	Cereals, hardware, textiles.	691,200,000
Newfoundland ..	Fish, iron, coal.	Fish, iron ore, fish oil.	9,392,000
Norway ..	Timber, fish, animals.	Timber, fish, paper.	48,827,000
Orange Free State ..	Diamonds, coal, sheep.	Diamonds, garnets, sheep.	1,368,000
Panama ..	Fruit, coffee, rubber.	Fruit, coffee, rubber.	1,175,000
Paraguay ..	Paraguay tea, fruit, cattle.	Paraguay tea, tobacco, hides.	3,891,000
Persia ..	Fruit, cotton, opium.	Fruit, cotton, opium.	12,048,000
Peru ..	Metals, sugar, cotton.	Metals, sugar, cotton.	18,727,000
Philippines ..	Hemp, copra, sugar, tobacco.	Hemp, tobacco, sugar.	28,672,000
Porto Rico ..	Coffee, sugar, tobacco.	Sugar, tobacco, coffee.	14,867,000
Portugal ..	Wine, cereals, fruit.	Wine, cork, canned fish.	39,710,000
Roumania ..	Grain, sheep, cattle.	Grain, fruit, wood.	74,964,000
Russia ..	Grain, petroleum, fibers.	Grain, raw materials, animal products.	469,040,000
Salvador ..	Coffee, indigo, tobacco.	Coffee, indigo, sugar.	10,278,000
Servia ..	Grain, plums, animals.	Animal products, grain.	13,848,000
Siam ..	Rice, teak, sea products.	Rice, teak, sea products.	21,763,000
Spain ..	Grain, fruits, minerals.	Wine, minerals, fruit.	150,423,000
Straits Settlements ..	Tin, gums, pepper.	Tin, gums, spices.	138,678,000
Sweden ..	Timber, iron, grain.	Timber, animals, metals.	95,446,000
Switzerland ..	Dairy products, animals, fruits.	Silk, cottons, clocks and watches.	171,520,000
The Transvaal ..	Gold, coal, sheep.	Gold, coal, wool.	37,158,000
Turkey ..	Tobacco, cereals, fruits.	Grapes, silk, wheat.	68,602,000
United Kingdom ..	Textiles, steel manufactures.	Textiles, steel manufactures.	1,739,147,000
United States ..	Cereals, cotton, minerals.	Cotton, grain, railway supplies.	1,398,231,000
Uruguay ..	Animal products, grain.	Meat, hides, grain.	33,603,000
Venezuela ..	Coffee, cacao, animals.	Coffee, cacao, hides.	14,900,000
Zanzibar ..	Spices.	Cloves.	5,185,000

Their Productions, Exports, and Imports

(Based on the Statesman's Year Book, 1904, and Chisholm's Handbook of Commercial Geography.)

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS.	TOTAL VALUE OF IMPORTS.	PRINCIPAL PORTS.	COUNTRY.
Cotton, indigo, sugar, tea.....		Algiers.....	Afghanistan.
Cottons, skins, furniture.....	\$ 66,557,000	Buenos Aires.....	Algeria.
Textiles, agricultural implements.....	103,039,000	Adelaide, Melbourne, Sydney.....	Argentina Republic.
Machinery cottons, woollens.....	202,782,000	Trieste.....	Australia.
Wool, cotton, coal, tobacco.....	321,792,000	Antwerp.....	Austria-Hungary.
Foodstuffs, timber, wool.....	694,632,000	Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, Santos.....	Belgium.
Cottons, woollens, hardware.....	5,040,000	Varna.....	Bolivia.
Foodstuffs, cottons, coal.....	109,672,000	Quebec, Montreal, Halifax.....	Brasil.
Textiles, metals, machinery.....	14,249,000	Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, E. London.....	Bulgaria.
Steel manufactures, coal, woollens.....	241,215,000	Colombo.....	Canada.
Textiles, food products.....	164,261,000	Valparaiso, Iquique.....	Cape of Good Hope.
Grain, coal, cottons.....	27,367,000	Shanghai, Canton.....	Ceylon.
Textiles, minerals, oils.....	47,674,000	Chemulpo.....	Chile.
Cottons, opium, rice.....	218,434,000	Barranquilla.....	China.
Cottons, silks, oil.....	6,771,000	Puerto Limon.....	Chosen.
Flour, salt, petroleum.....	2,040,000	Havana, Santiago de Cuba.....	Colombia.
Foodstuffs, dry goods, hardware.....	4,237,000	Copenhagen.....	Costa Rica.
Textiles, rice, food products.....	62,135,000	Puerto Plata, Samana.....	Cuba.
Provisions, textiles, hardware.....	150,506,000	Batavia, Surabaya.....	Denmark.
Cottons, hardware, provisions.....	2,987,000	Guayaquil.....	Dominican Republic.
Cottons, manure, hardware.....	91,692,000	Alexandria, Port Said.....	Dutch East Indies.
Cottons, woollens, hardware.....	7,077,000	Marseilles, Le Havre, Bordeaux.....	Ecuador.
Cottons, coal, wood.....	82,761,000	Hamburg, Bremen, Stettin.....	Egypt.
Wool, raw silk, coal.....	1,130,720,000	Piræus, Patras.....	France.
Provisions, raw materials, oil.....	1,393,386,000	San José, Puerto Barrios.....	Germany.
Cereals, yarns, coal.....	28,101,000	Port au Prince.....	Greece.
Cottons, provisions, beverages.....	2,256,000	Honolulu.....	Guatemala.
Cottons, sacks, hardware.....	5,500,000	Calcutta, Bombay, Rangoon.....	Haiti.
Manufactured goods, foodstuffs.....	13,630,000	Venice, Genoa, Leghorn.....	Hawaii.
Cottons, hardware, sugar.....	165,455,000	Kingston, Port Antonio.....	India.
Grain, cotton, coal.....	355,149,000	Yokohama, Nagasaki.....	Italy.
Cottons, fish, flour.....	9,742,000	Tamatave.....	Jamaica.
Cottons, sugar, hardware.....	145,405,000	Vera Cruz, Tampico.....	Japan.
Cottons, rice, wine.....	8,458,000	Tangier.....	Madagascar.
Hardware, textiles, coal.....	75,002,000	Durban.....	Mexico.
Cottons, sugar, tea.....	10,275,000	Rotterdam, Amsterdam.....	Morocco.
Hardware, dry goods, provisions.....	63,924,000	St. Johns.....	Natal.
Cereals, iron, textiles.....	868,800,000	Christiania, Bergen, Trondhjem.....	Netherlands.
Flour, textiles, provisions.....	7,729,000	Panama, Colon.....	Newfoundland.
Provisions, metals, textiles.....	78,360,000	Bushire.....	Norway.
Dry goods, food, hardware.....	11,808,000	Callao.....	Orange Free State.
Cottons, flour, provisions.....	2,569,000	Manila.....	Panama.
Textiles.....	2,332,000	Ponce, San Juan, Mayaguez.....	Paraguay.
Cottons, sugar, woollens.....	23,886,000	Oporto, Lisbon.....	Persia.
Breadstuffs, hardware, cottons.....	16,187,000	Galatz.....	Peru.
Rice, flour, wine.....	33,342,000	St. Petersburg, Odessa.....	Philippines.
Cottons.....	11,976,000	Acajutla, Libertad.....	Porto Rico.
Cottons, coal, codfish.....	60,044,000	Bangkok.....	Portugal.
Textiles, metals, hides.....	56,669,000	Barcelona, Cartagena, Malaga.....	Roumania.
Raw materials, manufactures.....	280,800,000	Singapore.....	Russia.
Cottons, breadstuffs, woollens.....	6,868,000	Gothenburg, Stockholm.....	Salvador.
Cottons, metals, woollens.....	8,606,000	Constantinople.....	Servia.
Cottons, sacks, opium.....	6,290,000	London, Liverpool, Glasgow.....	Siam.
Grain, cotton, timber.....	162,168,000	New York, Boston, New Orleans.....	Spain.
Rice, cottons, opium.....	161,682,000	Montevideo.....	Straits Settlements.
Coal, metal goods, yarns.....	125,896,000	La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Maracaibo.....	Sweden.
Foodstuffs, silk, metals.....	215,743,000	Zanzibar.....	Switzerland.
Hardware, clothing, provisions.....	65,338,000		The Transvaal.
Cottons, sugar, coffee.....	107,785,000		Turkey.
Breadstuffs, meat, cotton.....	2,605,950,000		United Kingdom.
Sugar, chemicals, coffee.....	1,025,719,000		United States.
Food, machinery, textiles.....	23,517,000		Uruguay.
Textiles, hardware, provisions.....	8,560,000		Venezuela.
Textiles, coal.....	5,310,000		Zanzibar.

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THE GEOGRAPHY OF ILLINOIS

By J. PAUL GOODE, Assistant Professor of Geography, the University of Chicago.

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ILLINOIS AS A "HOLE"

Location. The state of Illinois lies almost in the heart of the North American continent. It is in the very middle of the Great Central Plain, hence it has no barrier on any side. It is remote from the sea, hence it has a characteristic continental climate. Its borders are washed by the navigable waters of the two largest rivers on the continent, hence commerce is invited. How it came by its land surface, its fertile soil, its rich mineral wealth, and how all these have shaped the course of human history within its borders, is the story which the geography of Illinois has to tell.

Size. The most southern point of the "Prairie State" lies in the Mississippi River

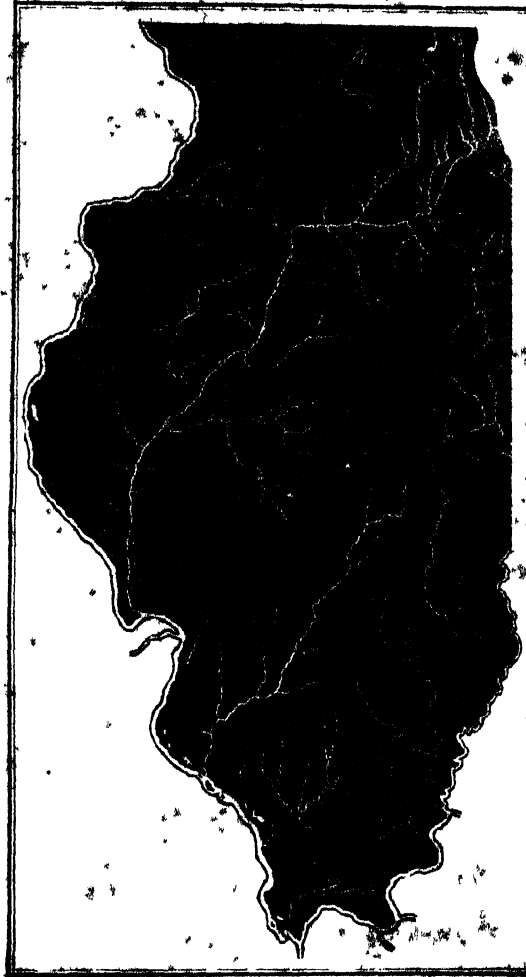


FIG. 1. A relief map of Illinois.

the land rises gradually to its highest points in Jo Daviess and Stephenson counties, where

at 36 degrees 59 minutes north latitude; its northern boundary, 385 miles farther north, is on the parallel of 42 degrees 30 minutes, a line adopted purposely to bring the port of Chicago well within the state. Its most eastern margin is on the meridian of 87 degrees 35 minutes west, from which line the state extends westward 218 miles, to the outer edge of Adams County on the Mississippi River in 91 degrees 40 minutes west longitude. This gives Illinois an area of 56,665 square miles, of which 663 square miles are water.

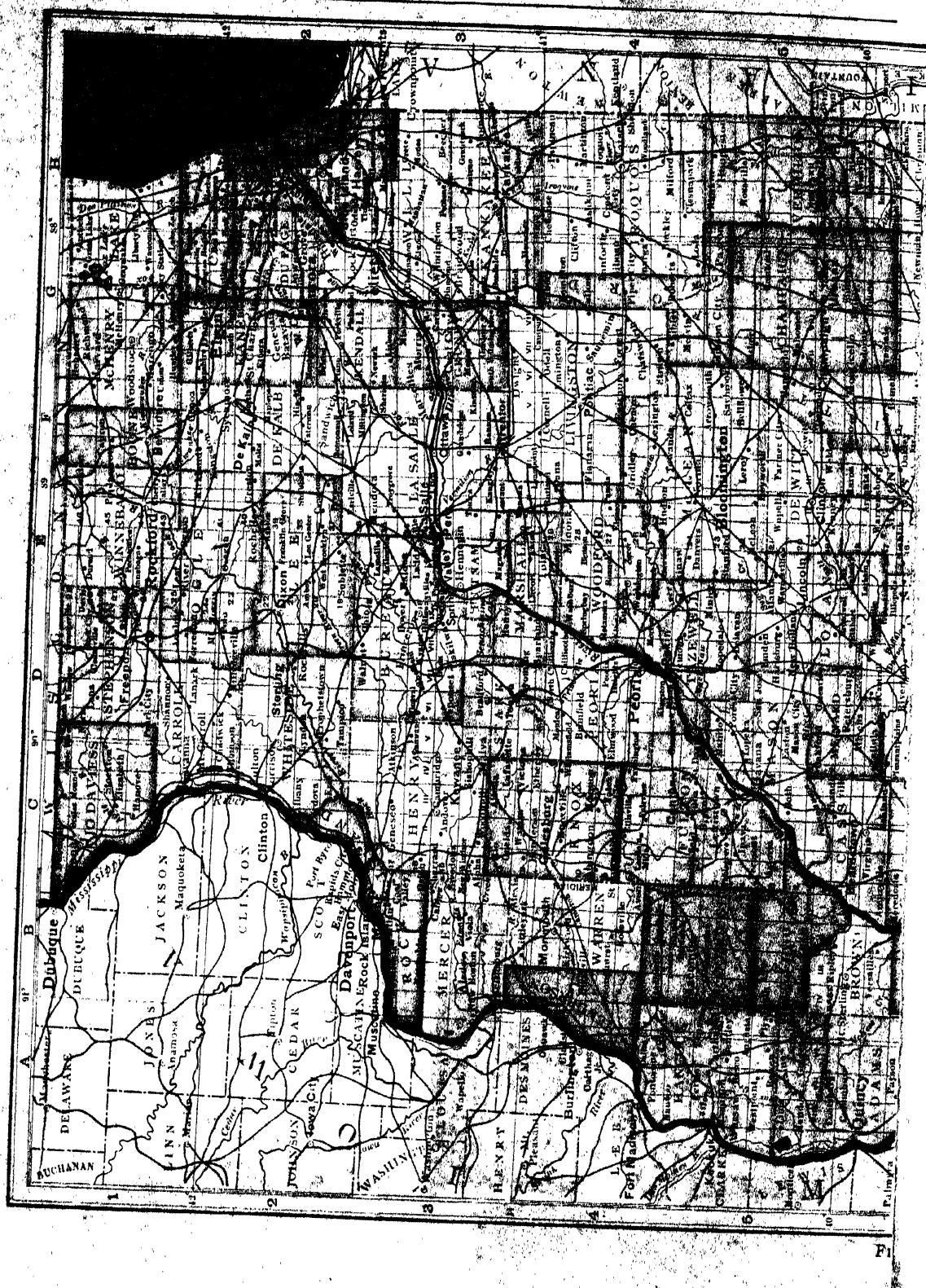
Surface. The surface of Illinois is very flat. From a mean river level of 267 feet above the sea at Cairo,



Hunting near Cairo.

By courtesy of the International Harvester Co.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF ILLINOIS





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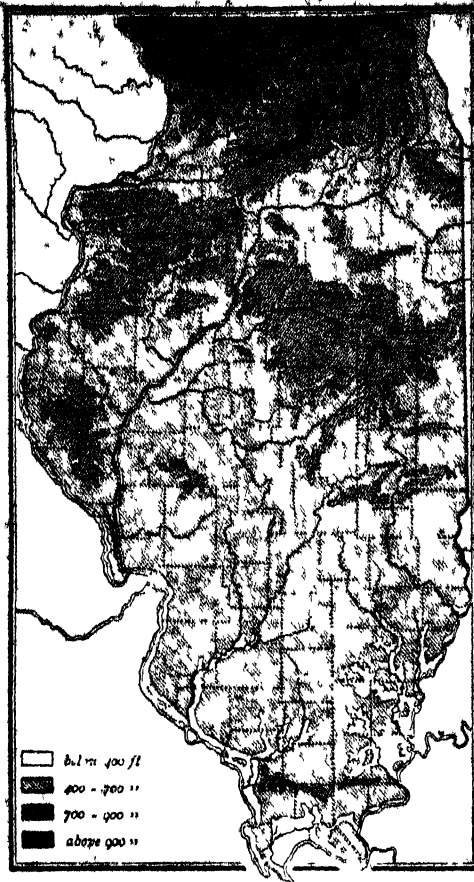


FIG. 4 A physical map of Illinois

it is only a little more than a thousand feet above sea level. (Fig. 4) This flatness is one of the state's largest resources, for being mantled with the richest of soils, agriculture is carried on in the largest measure and the building of railways and common roads is greatly facilitated. Because of these conditions Illinois ranks first in the value of farm land, and stands second, and only slightly behind Iowa, in the total value of farm products. Illinois ranks first in the production of corn and oats, and lies at the very center of the agricultural activity of the whole country. (Dodge Figs 250, 260, 262, and 263)

The Geological Story. The present surface and soil of Illinois have a long, long history, extending backward over perhaps a hundred million years to a time when the

present continent of North America was almost covered by shallow seas. The old land of this so-called pre-Cambrian time extended from northern Minnesota to Norway and Scotland. South of this land lay large islands in what is now northern Wisconsin, and in the Adirondack region, a long ridge of land extended down the eastern edge of the present Appalachian Mountains, there was also a small island in southeastern Missouri, and perhaps one in the southern part of Illinois. (Fig. 5)

Illinois at that time lay at the bottom of the shallow sea extending between Isle-Wisconsin and the Missouri isle, and was continually receiving detritus which later formed limestones. Near the land broad zones of sand were being worked over by waves and undertow, forming beds of future sandstones which dipped off toward the deeper sea. These sandstones are now great reservoirs, bringing the rain water from Wisconsin and Missouri down the dip to Illinois, and making possible our artesian wells. Although this sea was being filled all the time, yet it was many millions of years before there was dry land within the limits of the state.

After many ages the sea had been filled up and



FIG. 5. Isle-Wisconsin, the old land of Missouri, and the adjacent seas.

nearly the whole state was a great swamp where the marsh plants were falling down and being converted into beds of *peat* many feet in thickness, only to have the land sink and the sea cover them again. So through long ages, with the land level slightly above or slightly below the level of the sea, the rock and peat layers which constitute the present coal measures were being formed. At the end of this period only the southern tip of the state was beneath the sea, and that was reclaimed soon afterward.

The changes wrought in the Great Ice Age are of next importance. The ice sheet at its farthest advance covered almost all of the state except Jo Daviess County and that portion which lies south of a line drawn through Shawneetown and Carbondale. (Fig. 6.) It brought with it from the north lands, rocks and earth, which it left quite evenly distributed over all the area when it melted back. It advanced and retreated repeatedly, coming

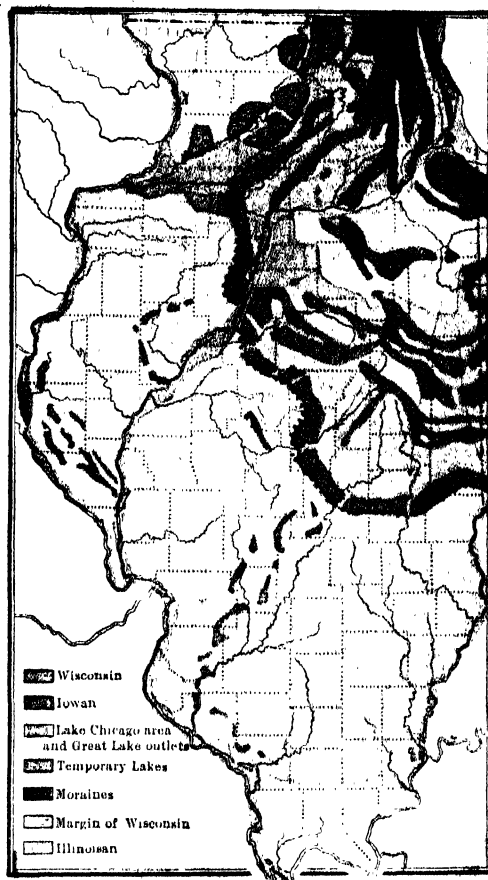


FIG. 6. Areas covered by ice in the Wisconsin, Iowan, and Wisconsin epochs of the Great Ice Age.

in the last advance like a great tongue of ice out of the trough of Lake Michigan, leaving its marginal moraines in long rows of low hills with undrained flat lands between. (Fig. 6.)

At various times during the period of the ice retreat the Great Lakes discharged their waters to the Gulf of Mexico through the Mississippi, the Illinois, and the Wabash rivers.

The sheet or mantle of drift left by the ice has furnished the material for an exceedingly rich soil. Much of it has been worked over by the waters and the winds, as alluvial and loess deposits, the bottom lands formed in the valleys of the great rivers being unexcelled in fertility.

Climate. Lying in the middle of the Great Central Plain, Illinois is exposed to every wind that blows. It has a well marked continental climate with wide contrasts in temperature between summer and winter. In summer 105 degrees is not uncommon, while in winter 35 degrees below zero is

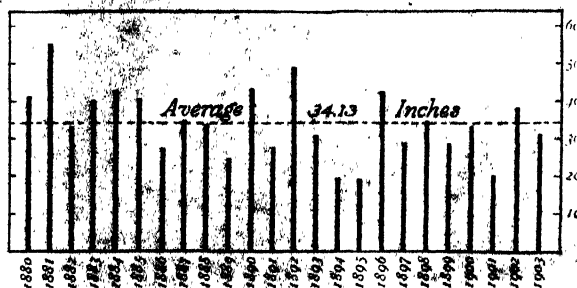


FIG. 7. The annual rainfall at Dubuque, Ia., from 1880 to 1903.

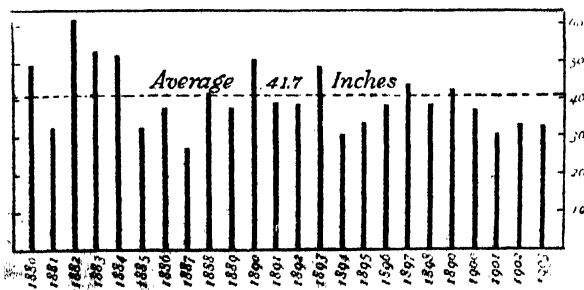


FIG. 8. The annual rainfall at Cairo, Ill., from 1880 to 1903.

sometimes recorded in the northern counties of the state. (Fig. 9.)

The growing season, or the period between the latest and the earliest killing frosts, varies from six months in the north to seven months in the south.

The weather of the state is almost wholly determined by the passage of cyclonic storms. An endless procession of low pressures is passing eastward across the continent, and many of them cross Illinois. Even when the center of a storm is far to the north or south, Illinois is swept by winds produced by the cyclone. (Dodge Figs. 90, 92, and 96.) Sometimes these storms are accompanied by destructive tornadoes. Peoria is near the center of tornado frequency in America.

Because of the constantly shifting winds the rainfall of Illinois is well distributed through the year,

and the rainy and cloudy days are well interspersed with days of sunshine. The ample supply of moisture,

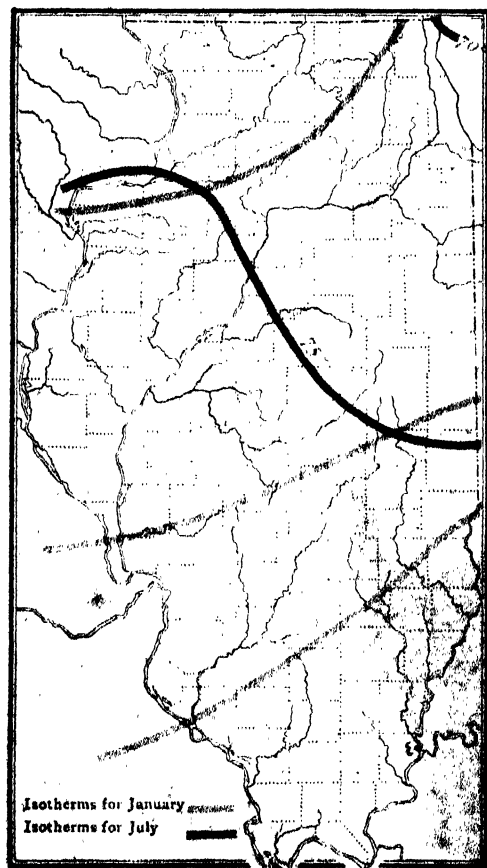


FIG. 9. Mean temperatures of Illinois in January and July.

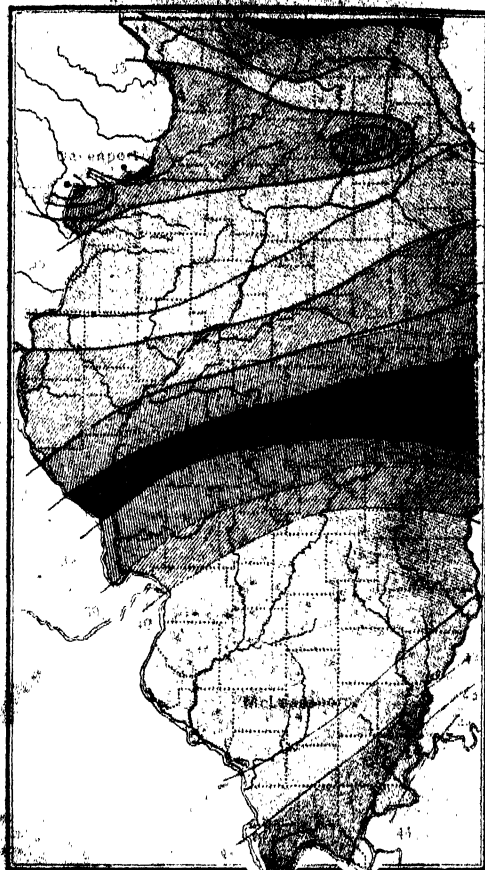


FIG. 10. The mean annual rainfall of Illinois.

warm days, and abundant sunshine favor the growth of corn. There is usually an abundance of rain for all farm crops and for all forest trees. (Fig. 10.) Yet there are occasional drouths which do immense damage to the crops. (Figs. 7 and 8.) Doubtless these occasional severe drouths have helped to keep large areas of the state treeless.

Vegetation. The ice invasion and the lack of barriers have provided a wide variety of plant forms in Illinois; northern species have mixed with invaders from the humid gulf region and from the arid southwest. The great forest area of the eastern United States originally covered the southern counties of Illinois and followed up the river valleys. (Fig. 12.) Most of the state, however, was prairie when the white man came. Lack of drainage over large areas, occasional drouths, and annual prairie fires have kept the prairie free from trees. Since the land has



FIG. 11. Starved Rock, on the Illinois River near Utica, on which, in 1682, La Salle built Fort St. Louis.

been drained and the prairie fires suppressed, trees will grow anywhere.

Animal Life. When La Salle made his first visit to the region, game was plentiful. Buffalo, deer, and elk roamed the prairies. Bears, wolves, panthers, raccoons, and opossums abounded in the woods. The wild swan, the goose, the duck, and the pelican were common on all the waters. Now all the large forms of wild life have disappeared, and even the smaller game birds are kept from extermination only by the favor of the law.

Nearly a million dollars' worth of fish are taken each year from the Illinois River alone, and while the waters of the state have an enormous capacity for raising fish, they have been much neglected. Now, however, there is a State Fish

Commission and some attention is being given to hatching and protecting fish.

Native Peoples. Two hundred years ago Illinois was sparsely peopled by a few thousand Indians. The Algonquin tribes occupied the state, the Pottawattomies about Chicago, the Saes and the Foxes in the Rockford region, the Illinois along the river bearing their name, and various smaller tribes elsewhere, while the ter-



FIG. 13. The La Salle monument in Lincoln Park, Chicago.

ritory of the great Siouan family touched the western boundary of the state along the Mississippi River. To-day they are all gone.

History. The French *voyageurs* and the Jesuit Fathers were the first white people to visit the present state of Illinois. They had established themselves on the lower St. Lawrence, and had pushed westward along the rivers in their quest for furs and in their zeal for converting the savages. This is how in 1673 the Jesuit priest, Père Marquette, and the fur trader, Louis Joliet, came to explore the Mississippi, coming from Lake Michigan by way of the Fox and the Wisconsin rivers, and floating down the

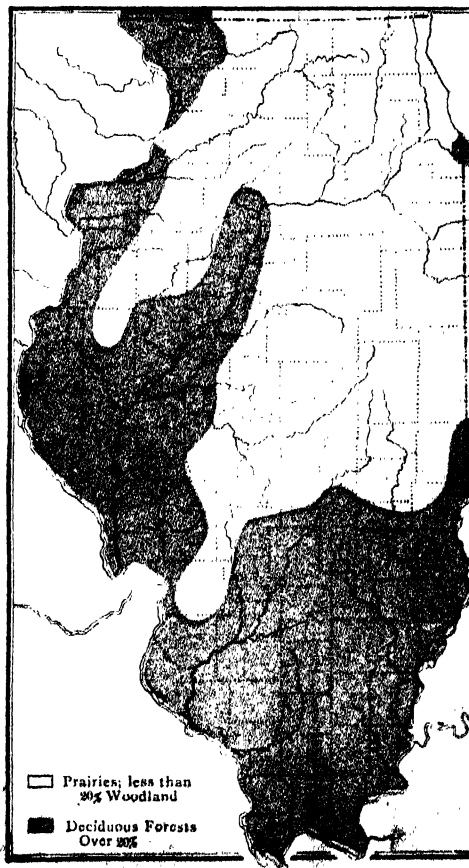


FIG. 12. The distribution of vegetation.

"Father of Waters" in their birch-bark canoes. Somewhere near the mouth of the Des Moines River they were hospitably entertained by the Illinois, the tribe whose name was later applied to the state. They explored the country as far south as the Arkansas River, and returning north, their course took them up the Illinois River. (Fig. 15.) The winter of 1674-5 Père Marquette spent, sick, in a cabin on the Chicago River, near where the city of Chicago now stands. This was the first white man's habitation in the state.

In the winter of 1679-80 La Salle, with a party including Tonty and Father Hennepin, came up the St. Joseph River, portaged to the Kankakee in Indiana, and drifted down the Illinois River. In January of 1680 they built a fort which they called "Crevecoeur," on the left bank of the Illinois a short distance below Lake Peoria. In February, 1680, Father Hennepin set out from this fort on his famous journey of exploration of the upper Mississippi River.

In 1682 La Salle and Tonty built Fort St. Louis, on Starved Rock, near Utica, and within the next seven years French trading posts were estab-



FIG. 14. GEORGE ROGERS CLARK, the hero of Kaskaskia and Vincennes. From the original painting by Jarvis, now (1907) in the possession of the Virginia Historical Society, Richmond, Va.

lished at Kaskaskia in Randolph County, and Cahokia in St. Clair County.

Fifty years later there were six growing settlements within the area of the present state. In 1778 there were three important British posts in central North America. These were Detroit, Vincennes, and Kaskaskia. They were a menace to the Kentucky settlements until George Rogers Clark and a handful of men from Kentucky, by almost incredible daring, captured Kaskaskia and Vincennes, and

added the area northwest of the Ohio River to the territory which became the United States. Out of this area northwest of the Ohio were carved Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana; the rest was organized as the Territory of Illinois in 1809. In 1818 Illinois was admitted as a state.

Settlement. The French occupation of the region of Illinois contributed a very slender element to the white population. Their influence remains mostly in a sprinkling of names applied to rivers and towns, such as Joliet and La Salle. The river routes of the central west brought large numbers of hardy pioneers from Kentucky and Virginia in the early decades of the nineteenth century.

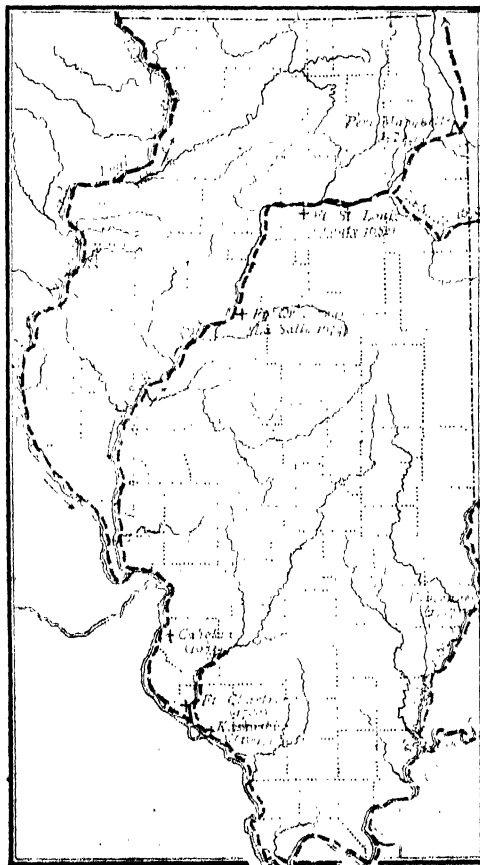


FIG. 15. The earliest voyages and settlements of the French.

The hostility of the Indians retarded settlement from the north. After the Black Hawk War there was a large influx from the eastern states, by way of the Great Lakes and the Erie Canal. In the 40's and 50's a great German immigration came along the same route. Chicago to-day has one of the largest German populations of any city in the world. A few years later a large influx of Scandinavians settled in the northwestern counties. Since the coming of the railway in 1850 development has been rapid in every part of the state. Since the 80's the increase in population



FIG. 16. BLACK HAWK (Ma-Ka-Tai-Me-She-Kia-Kiah), chief of the Sacs and Foxes in 1832, born at Kaskaskia, Ill., 1767. From a lithograph portrait in McKenney's "History of the Indian Tribes of North America," and reproduced by permission of the Chicago Historical Society.

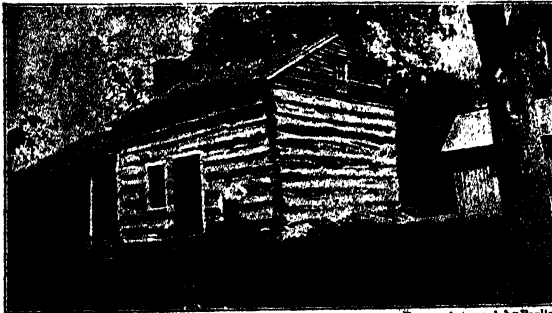


FIG. 17. A typical early settler's cabin in Illinois. Notice the logs chinked with plaster, and the old stone chimney. The outbuildings are modern.

has been almost wholly in the cities. Chicago is one of the most cosmopolitan cities in the world.

Industrial Development. Water transportation has had an extremely powerful influence in the development of Illinois. The rivers and the lakes were the earliest lines of travel; most of the settlers came by boat, and the first towns were along the rivers. The introduction of steamboats upon the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers in 1811, and

later upon the Great Lakes, gave a great impetus to western development. The middle third of the last century saw steamboat traffic rise to supremacy in the West. At that time the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers were the greatest arteries of trade upon the continent, and even the Embarras, Kaskaskia, Illinois, and Rock rivers had their steamboat service. The coming of the railway in 1850 furnished a better means of traffic, and turned the tide of commerce and travel from the rivers, so that many of the river towns declined in importance. Traffic on the Great Lakes, however, has

steadily increased, until to-day they form one of the most important waterways of the world. Lake transportation, by means of which coal and iron are brought to Chicago and wheat is shipped east, has been one of the largest factors in the building of the city and the development of the industries of the state. (Fig. 23.)

In early days the common roads were very



FIG. 18. A Mississippi River steamboat. This type of stern wheeler built up the river commerce to southern ports and opened up the industries of the prairies.

poor, as road-making material was difficult to procure in many places. Thus the pioneer was seriously handicapped in being unable through a large part of the year to get his produce to market or to procure the necessities from the outside world. Later the very success of the railway building tended to discourage the making of good wagon roads. Recently, however, the making of good country roads has become a matter of pride, and many hundreds of miles of excellent roads have been built within the state. These roads almost invariably follow the section lines. Years ago the state was surveyed into townships six miles square, reckoning from so-called principal meridians and base lines as shown on the map. (Fig. 3.) These township lines have furnished the basis for county boundaries.

The compass does not point to the true north

anywhere in the state, but a little to the east of north. (Fig. 19.) Corrections must be made accordingly.

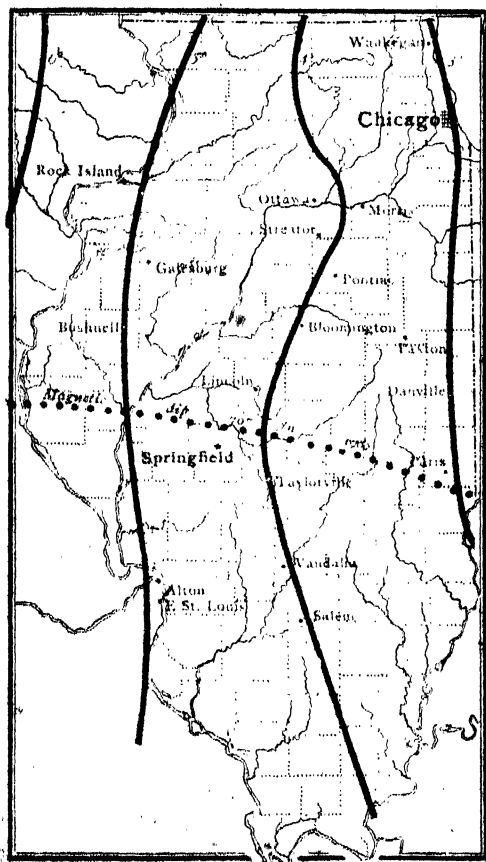


FIG. 19. East magnetic declination, 1902. The compass needle points east of the true north.

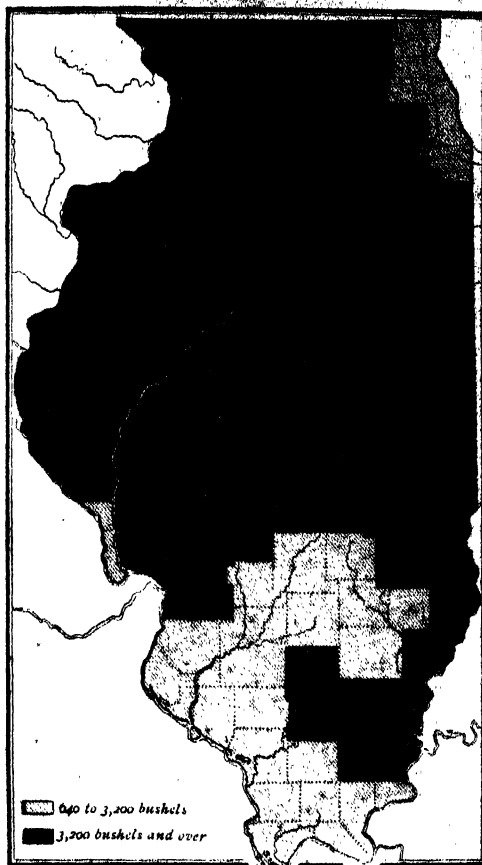


FIG. 20. The yield of corn per square mile.

Moreover, the correction for a given place varies slightly from year to year, so that a line once surveyed needs to be dated.

Agriculture. By far the greatest and most enduring source of wealth in the state are the level and extremely fertile farming lands. The gentle slopes and fine soil have invited the introduction of labor-saving machinery, thus making large farms possible and enormously increasing the production per capita while decreasing the cost of the product. In large areas the extreme flatness has been a serious handicap to development, because of a lack of drainage. Extensive ditching and tiling, however, have removed this difficulty to a large extent, and as a result a larger percentage of land is under the plow than in any other state except Iowa. (Dodge Fig. 253.) Farm lands cover 99.7 per cent of the total area of the state, and 86.2 per cent of this area is improved

land. The average size of the farms is 129 acres, and 59 per cent of the farms are worked by their owners.

The climate and the soil invite the cultivation of nearly every crop known in the Temperate Belt, but by far the most valuable product of the soil is corn; over 10,000,000 acres were planted to this grain in 1910.



FIG. 21. Threshing wheat in a large wheat district of Illinois.

This was more than twice the area given to any other crop; the yield was nearly 400,000,000 bushels. Illinois ranks first in corn and in the total production of cereals, with Iowa a close second. (Dodge Fig. 260) The best yield of corn is found in the glacial soils of the central and northern parts of the state. Here a yield of over 125 bushels per acre is often known.

Illinois is first among the states in the production of oats. (Dodge Fig. 263.) In 1910 4,176,485 acres or 6,526 square miles were devoted to this crop. About 151,000,000 bushels, or an average of more than 23,000 bushels per square mile, were raised. (Fig. 22.) Only Montana and Washington exceeded



FIG. 23. The immense grain elevators along the Chicago River. Grain from the field is stored here and then shipped by boat and rail all over the world.

this yield. Winter wheat is being raised in increasing quantities; Illinois is now the seventh state, with more than 37,000,000 bushels. Only 63,325 acres of barley were

grown in 1910, and in yield per acre Illinois ranks fifteenth among the states. Illinois now stands ninth in the production of rye, with nearly 800,000 bushels.

This generous production of food grains puts Illinois far in advance of all other states in the amount and the value of cereals produced. Illinois has 8.6 per cent of the entire country's cereal acreage with Kansas a close second. The value of the cereal crop in Illinois in 1910 was \$297,523,098, or about 85 per cent of the entire crop value of the state.

Many profitable crops besides cereals are raised. Illinois ranks high in the quantity and quality of its broom corn, although

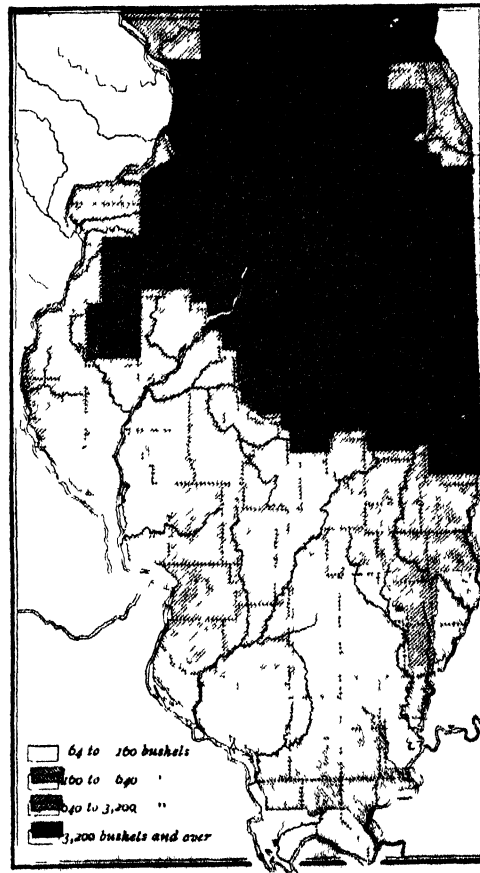


FIG. 22. The yield of oats per square mile

the yield is much less than it was ten years ago. The amount produced averages about 8,000,000 pounds. Coles County leads with 57 per cent of the total crop of the state.

Almost 13,000,000 bushels of potatoes were grown in 1910, the northern half of the state producing the larger portion. In the southern counties the sweet potato flourishes, yielding a crop of more than a million bushels.

Every variety of temperate climate fruit thrives, though the apple crop, to which every county contributes, is the largest. There were over 9,000,000 trees, producing over 3,000,000 bushels of apples, in 1910.

In the same year more than 287,000 bushels of cherries, 249,000 bushels of pears, 1,223,000 bushels of peaches, and 16,000,000 pounds of grapes were produced, together with large quantities of strawberries, blackberries, raspberries, and many other small

fruits. (Fig. 25.)

Climate and soil conditions are ideal for the growth of grass and other forage crops. (Fig. 27.)

Over three and a third million acres are now devoted to these crops, and taking no account of the fodder from cornstalks, there is a yield of more than 4,000,000 tons of forage crops, valued at over \$40,000,000.

Some minor crops are sorghum, tobacco, and the castor bean, which is raised mostly in the southern counties. Illinois produced more than 300,000 pounds of honey in 1911.

Stock Raising. It is easy to see that with all this grain and forage, stock raising may be extensively carried on. The superior and plentiful crops of oats and hay encourage the breeding of horses, of which there are about a million and a half, valued at about \$164,000,000. (Dodge Figs. 265 and 267.) Nearly all the work on the farms is done by horses.

Corn cannot be transported so readily as wheat. It heats and molds easily when kept in large quantities,

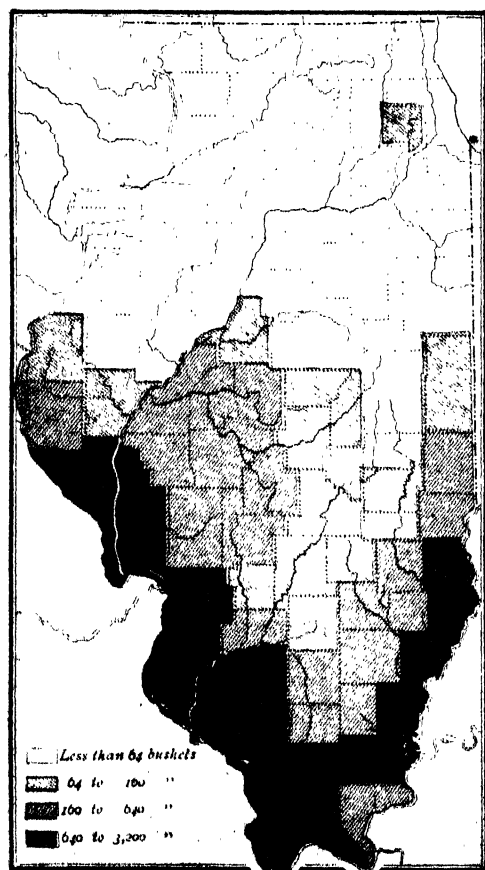


FIG. 24. The yield of wheat per square mile.

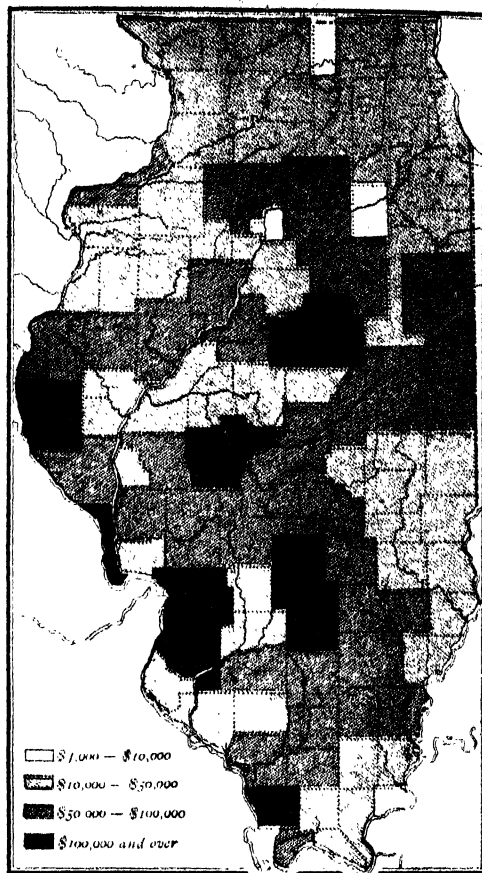


FIG. 25. The value of fruit products by counties.

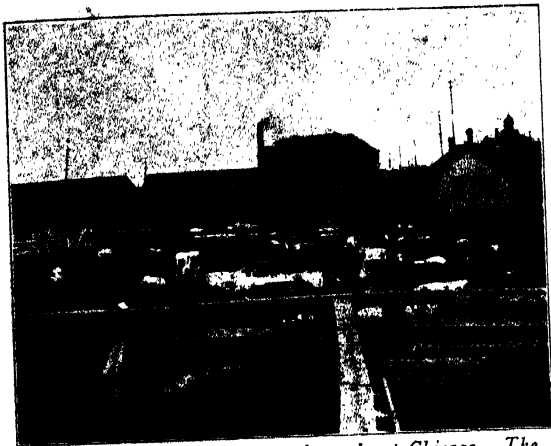


FIG. 26. Looking over the stock yards at Chicago. The cattle are fattened in the country and shipped to Chicago for slaughter.

so that it is largely used on the farm as feed for cattle and hogs. There are in the state over 2,400,000 cattle valued at \$73,000,000.

(Dodge Fig. 251.) Many of these are brought from the western ranges to be corn fed before slaughtering. Dairying, however, is an important industry. There are in the state over a million dairy cows, yielding annually over 100,000,000 gallons of milk. Much of this goes to Chicago and other city markets to be used as fresh milk, but the larger part is made into butter at numerous creameries or into cheese at factories, or is condensed and canned for domestic and export trade. The largest factory in the world for condensing milk is located at Dixon. It uses many thousand pounds of milk a day. The city of Elgin has a world-wide fame for its butter, and for a

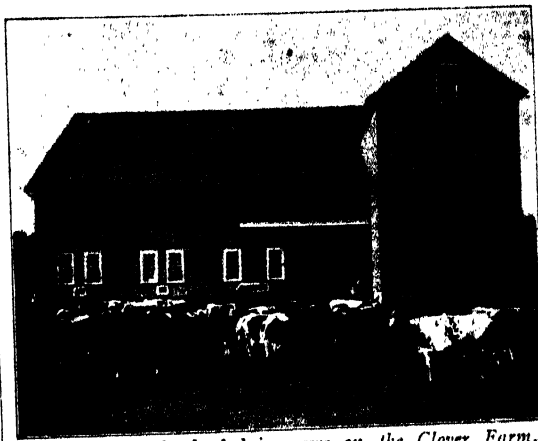


FIG. 28. A herd of dairy cows on the Clover Farm, De Kalb, Ill.

generation it has been a leading butter market of the country. More than \$15,000,000 worth of butter was sold in the Elgin dairy district in 1911. The total annual value of

the dairy products of the state is about \$25,000,000. (Dodge Figs. 224 and 225.)

One of the most profitable ways in which corn goes to market is in the form of pork. Illinois ranks second in raising of hogs, with about 5,000,000, valued at nearly \$37,000,000. (Dodge Figs. 268 and 269.)

There are over a million sheep in the state, valued at more than \$4,800,000. This is comparatively a very small number, however. The reason for this may be found in the large proportion of flat and relatively undrained land, which is not suitable for the rearing of sheep.

Poultry Raising. Where grain is cheap and plentiful, poultry is profitable.

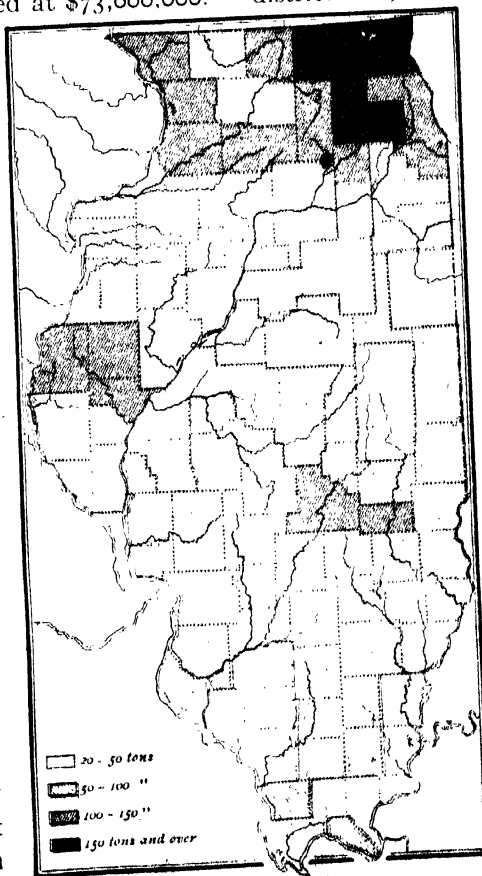


FIG. 27. The production of hay and forage per square mile.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF ILLINOIS



FIG. 29. Cooling and bottling milk at the Gurler dairy farm, DeKalb, Ill.

Illinois ranks high among the states with a total poultry value of about \$12,000,000. The total value of eggs sold in 1911 was nearly \$3,000,000, Livingston County ranking first in the value of both poultry and eggs.

Total Value of Farm Products. In the total value of farm products Iowa and Illinois are in a class by themselves, leading all other states. The total value for Illinois in 1911 was about \$472,000,000. But in the total value of farm lands, farm improvements, live stock, and farm implements, Illinois stands far in the lead, its valuation reaching the almost incredible sum of over \$3,905,000,000.

Mineral Resources. Illinois has enormous deposits of coal. More than 35,000 square miles, or about two-thirds of the whole area of the state,

are underlaid by productive beds. (Fig. 32.) This coal is of very high quality, the block coal being especially adapted to the production of steam. The coal deposits lie in



FIG. 31. Hundreds of cars loaded with coal from the Illinois coal mines, waiting to be sent to the consumer.

nearly horizontal beds, in a few workable seams, from one foot to five feet ten inches thick, and within 600 feet of the surface. The most productive mines are in Williamson, Sangamon, St. Clair, Macoupin, Madison, Vermilion, Saline, Fulton, Bureau, and Perry counties, though fifty-four counties contribute to the output.

Coal was first reported from Fort Crevecoeur by Father Hennepin; this was the first discovery of coal in America. Notwithstanding this very early discovery, coal was not extensively produced in Illinois until since 1870. The output in 1880 was about 6,150,000 tons; in 1910 it was 45,900,246 tons (Dodge Fig. 222), valued at a little more than \$1 a ton at the mine. This

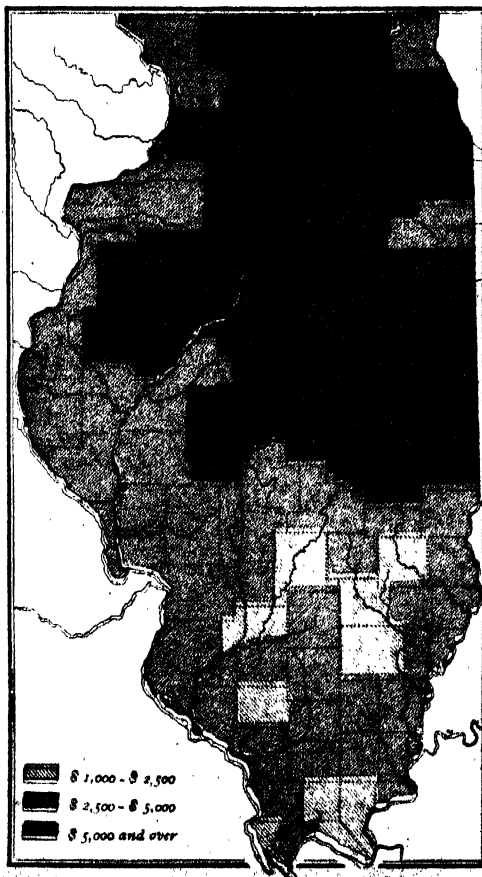


FIG. 30. The value of farm products per square mile.

gives Illinois third rank among the coal-producing states, with about 9.2 per cent of the country's output. (Dodge Fig. 222.) The presence of coal is largely responsible for the extensive manufacturing which is carried on in and around Chicago and other cities. Chicago produces over 66 per cent of the total manufactures of the state.

Limestones convenient for building and road-making are found in most of the counties. Over three and a half million dollars' worth is quarried each year, and in addition over three million dollars' worth of cement is put on the market annually.

Clays for brick-making are found everywhere, in glacial drift, in river bottoms, and in the coal measures. Very extensive brick manufactories are located at Chicago, and streets are largely paved with brick all over the state. Tile and terra cotta

are also extensively manufactured wherever coal is abundant.

Lead and zinc are produced in the region of Galena.

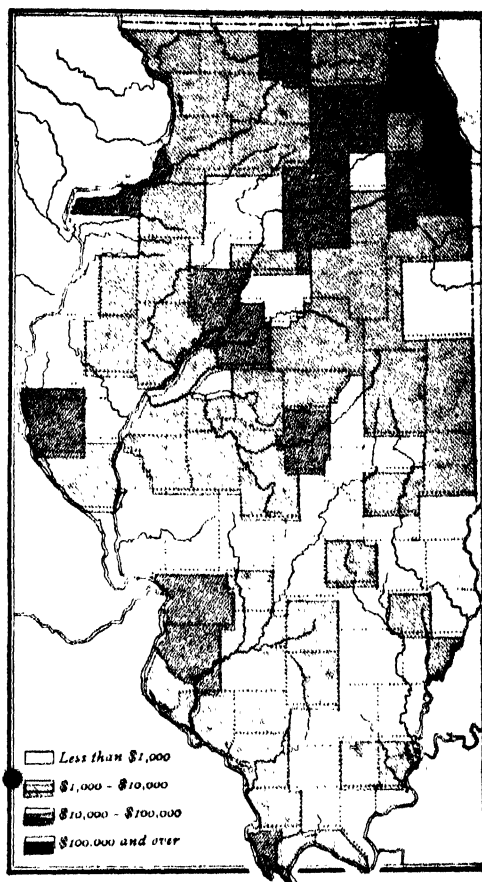


FIG. 33. The value of manufactured products per square mile.

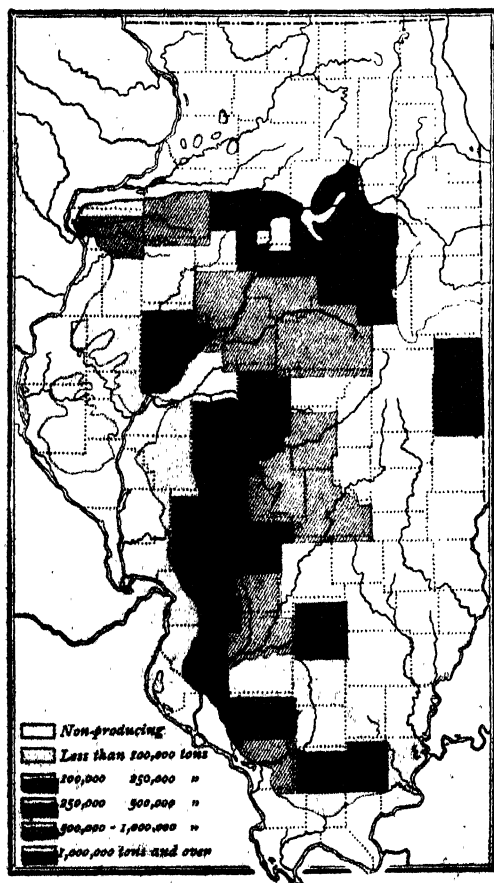


FIG. 32. The coal fields of Illinois and the production of coal by counties.

Manufacturing. Many causes combine to make Illinois the richest manufacturing state west of the Appalachian Mountains: the central location; the superior advantages of water transportation furnished by the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers; the still more excellent water route to the East by way of the Great Lakes; the great deposits of coal; the proximity to the hardwood forests of the Central States and the pine forests of the upper lakes; the exceeding richness of the iron deposits of the Lake Superior country; the position of Lake Michigan which lies directly across the normal east-west trend of commerce, focusing land transportation routes at the southern end of the lake; the glaciated land surface, flat and rich for agricultural development and making easy the building of railways. (Dodge Fig. 195.) All these factors are involved in the commercial



FIG. 34. *Shipping on the Chicago River. All the Great Lake ports are reached by steamers and sailing vessels that leave the port of Chicago.*

supremacy of the state of Illinois and in the phenomenal development of Chicago, the second largest city in America. Many lines of steamers on the Great Lakes bring coal from the Pennsylvania region, iron from Lake Superior, lumber from the upper lakes, and take grain to the seaboard. An enormous business is done in the seven or eight months during which navigation is open, but the railways are open every day in the year, so the business they do is much greater. It is largely to the superior transportation facilities of the state that it owes its rapid development, the deep waterway of the Great Lakes giving to Chicago and her tributary area the lowest railway freight rates in the world, on traffic to and from the Atlantic.

Illinois ranks first among the states in slaughtering and meat-packing; also in the manufacture of distilled liquors and agricultural implements.

By far the most important industry in the state is slaughtering and meat-packing, which in 1910 amounted to almost \$390,000,000; 83.4 per cent of it was done in Chicago. (Fig. 26, Dodge Fig. 266.) Every part of the animals

slaughtered is utilized; dependent industries result, with products whose value is measured in millions of dollars. For example, the value of soaps and candles made is over \$20,000,000; leather products are equally valuable.

Good transportation assures cheap coal and iron; hence the manufactures of iron and steel show an annual product valued at over \$86,000,000. More than one-half of this is made in Chicago, and a little more than one-fifth in Joliet. (Dodge, Figs. 276 and 638.)

The value of agricultural implements made in Illinois is three times that of any other state. The year's product in 1910 was worth over \$57,000,000. Men's and women's

factory-made clothing amounted to \$106,000,000, most of which was manufactured in Chicago. Railway cars amounted to \$32,000,000, Illinois ranking second in this industry. The state also stood second in the manufacture of books and musical instruments.

Because of the vast quantities of corn and other grains produced,

Illinois ranks first in the making of distilled liquors, with an annual product valued at about \$56,000,000. The city of Peoria produces over four-fifths of this, the largest output



FIG. 35. *Through the manufacturing district of Chicago. The picture shows the bascule bridge at 12th Street open to allow a lake steamer to pass.*

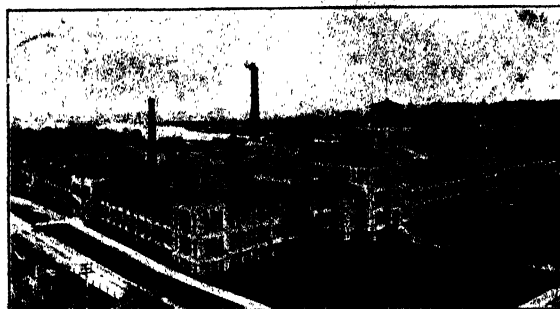


FIG. 36. *The plant of the Elgin National Watch Company, Elgin, Ill.*

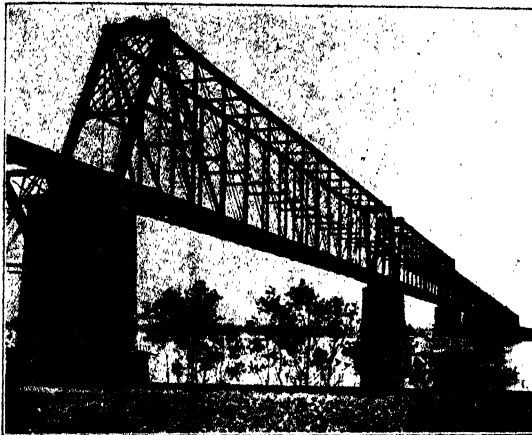


FIG. 37. The Illinois Central Railroad bridge across the Ohio River at Cairo.

of any city in the land. Many cities contribute to the production of malt liquors, the annual value of which, for the entire state, is \$28,000,000.

This industry also depends upon the great crops of corn and barley.

About 20 per cent of the corn crop is used for manufacture within the state. The largest single product is glucose, a kind of sugar; the annual output was worth \$18,000,000 in 1905. From corn more than thirty-five distinct products are made, varying from starch, glucose, and liquors to the finest of paper.

A very large industry has grown up in the making of electrical apparatus and supplies, the value of the product passing the twenty-six million-dollar mark. A few of the lesser industries of special prominence are barbed wire at DeKalb, watches at Elgin, glass at Ottawa, and stoves and corsets at Aurora.

These are only a few of the more impor-

tant industries. The complete list includes hundreds of separate lines, and the manufacturing industries of Illinois are really only just beginning to be developed.

Railways. Along with the agricultural and industrial development of Illinois, and the largest factor in it, is the growth of railways. One of the first lines in the state was the Illinois Central, which was given an extensive land grant by Congress in 1850.

This line is now one of the richest and strongest in the country, and still pays to the state 7 per cent of its gross income, being otherwise exempt from taxation.

In 1860 there were 2,790 miles of railway in the state. This mileage had grown to 10,165 in 1880, and in 1910 amounted to 12,086 miles, averaging over twenty miles of railway for each

100 square miles of area, or twenty-one miles for every 10,000 people. This makes Illinois second among the states in railway mileage.

There are now 116 railway corporations in the

state. In 1900 they carried over 42,000,000 passengers, the average journey being 24.12 miles. In the same year nearly eight and a half million tons of freight were carried.

Chicago ranks as the greatest railway center

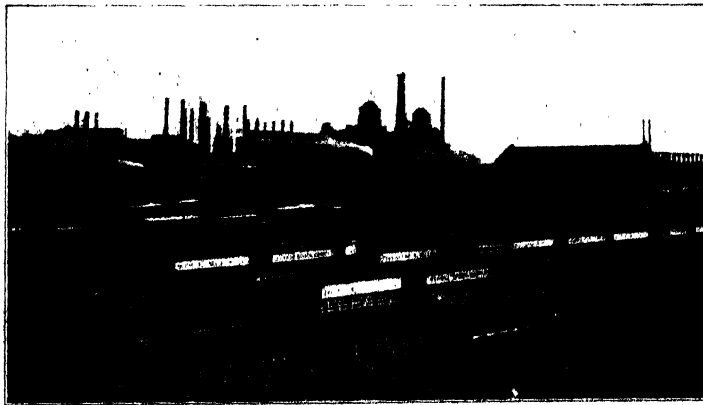
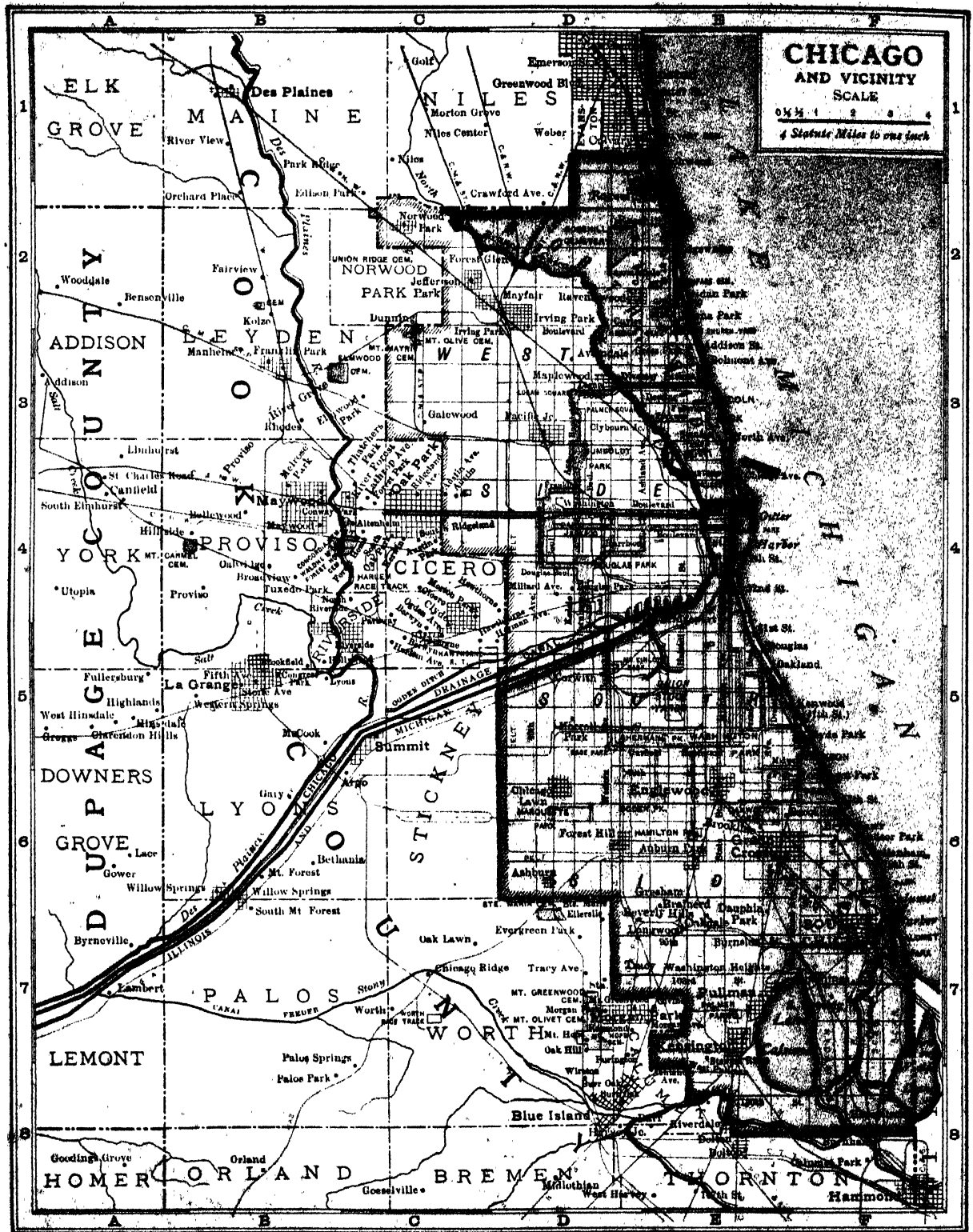


FIG. 38. A general view of the Illinois Steel Works at South Chicago.



FIG. 39. The Eads bridge across the Mississippi River at East St. Louis.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF ILLINOIS



Revised, 1928

FIG. 40

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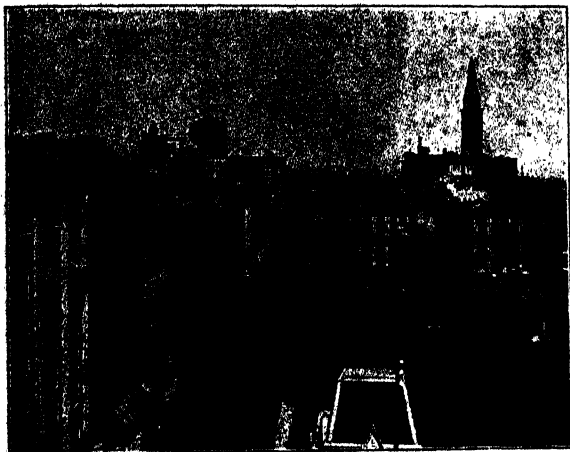


FIG. 41. *In the heart of the business district of Chicago.*

in the world. Curiously enough it is the position of Lake Michigan which is most responsible for the concentration of land transportation routes at Chicago, because it thrusts its 300 miles of length directly athwart the normal westward pathway of travel and commerce from the Mohawk Valley.

The ports of western Europe have been the centers of the world's commerce through all the history of the New World. This fact has led to the development of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, our ports nearest Europe. Of these three cities Boston has been largely shut off from the trade of the west by the Hoosac Mountain barrier; Philadelphia likewise has long been handicapped by the Appalachian barrier. New York alone has had free and unhampered access by way of the Mohawk Valley and the Great Lakes to the flat plains of the West.

The most direct route from Buffalo to El Paso, Tex., lies through Chicago. All the country west of Lake Michigan and north of this line finds its shortest route to the East through Chicago. This accounts for the

twenty-four railways radiating like spokes of a wheel from Chicago, and gives a new meaning to the device on Chicago's escutcheon, "The parting of the ways."

Encircling the city at various distances from the center are three so-called "belt lines" cutting across all the tracks of the twenty-four roads, and making it easy to switch cars from one road to another without their going to the center of the city, thus avoiding congestion of freight.

The Growth of Cities. The most striking feature in the movement of population in Illinois in the past twenty years lies in the growth of cities. The agricultural population is very evenly distributed over all the counties of the state. (Fig. 45.) But cities have sprung up all over the state, particularly wherever water power or coal is convenient for manufacturing, or where special facilities for transportation exist. Chicago, with 2,185,283 people, or more than one-third of the



FIG. 42. *Chicago's escutcheon.*

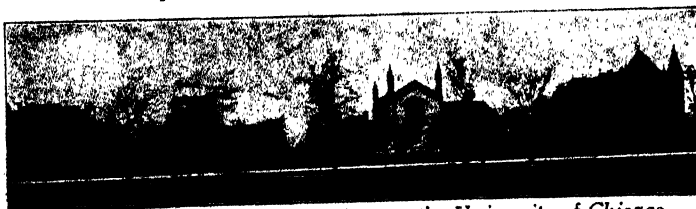


FIG. 43. *A group of the buildings at the University of Chicago.*

population of the state, is fringed with flourishing suburban industrial or residence towns of considerable size. Sixty-seven cities outside of this area, having from 5,000 to 70,000 people, are growing at

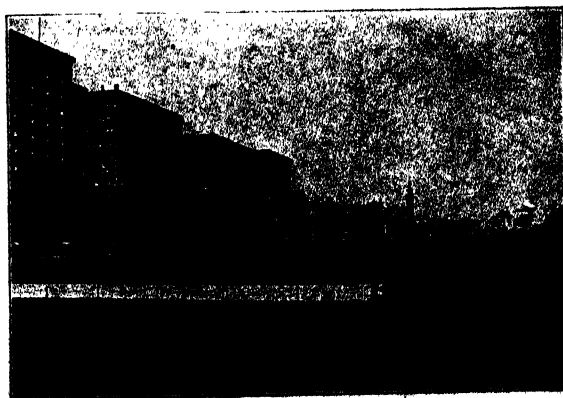


FIG. 44. *Along the lake front, in downtown Chicago.*

quite as rapid a rate. There are 366 cities and towns in the state having a population of 1,000 and over. In fact over one-half the population of Illinois is urban, and the density for the state is one hundred people per square mile, which is more than three times the density for the whole country.

The State Government. The present constitution of Illinois, the third it has had, was adopted in 1870. To amend it requires a two-thirds vote of each house of the legislature and a majority of the votes cast at a popular election. Voters must have resided in the state one year, in the county ninety days, and in the election precinct thirty days next preceding an election.

The legislature consists of a Senate of fifty-one members, elected for four years, and a House of Representatives of 153 members elected for

two years. Three Representatives are elected from each of the fifty-one senatorial districts. Legislators receive \$1,000 and mileage, and \$50 for incidental expenses. The session begins at the Capitol in Springfield the first Wednesday after the first Monday in January of odd-numbered years.

The Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary, Auditor, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Attorney-General are elected for four years. The Treasurer is elected for two years and is not eligible for election the next succeeding term.

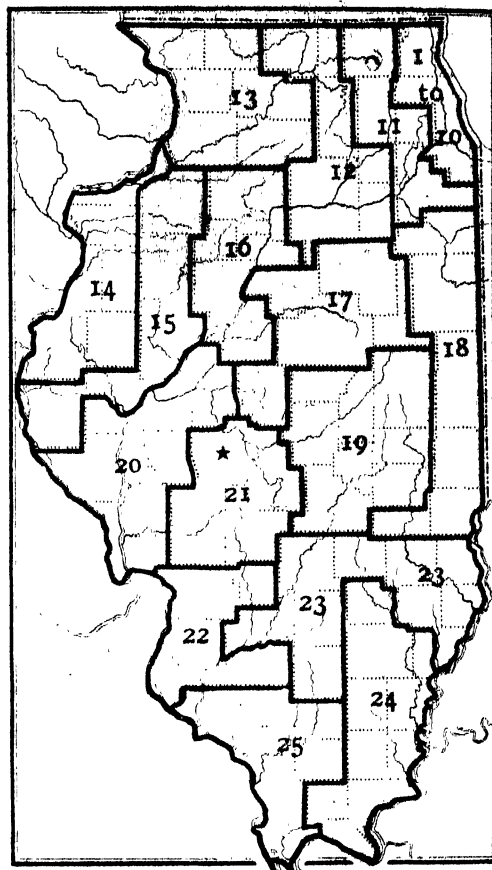


FIG. 46. Congressional districts of Illinois, 1904.

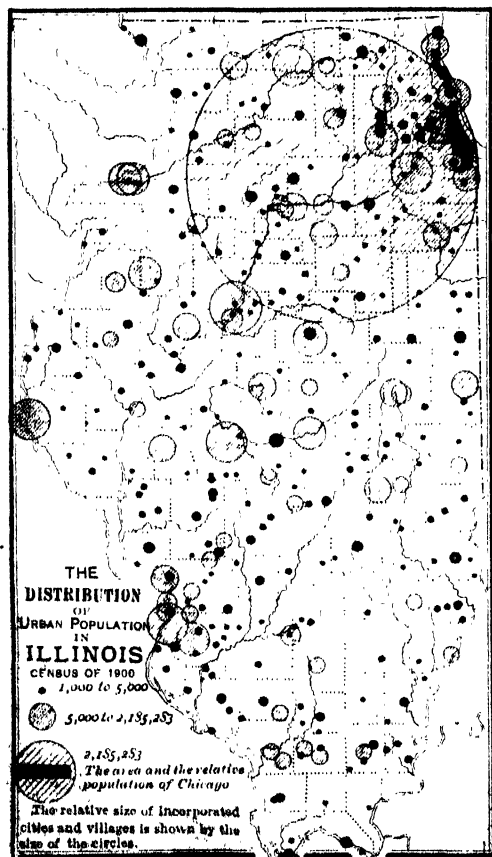


FIG. 45. The density of urban population in Illinois, census of 1910.

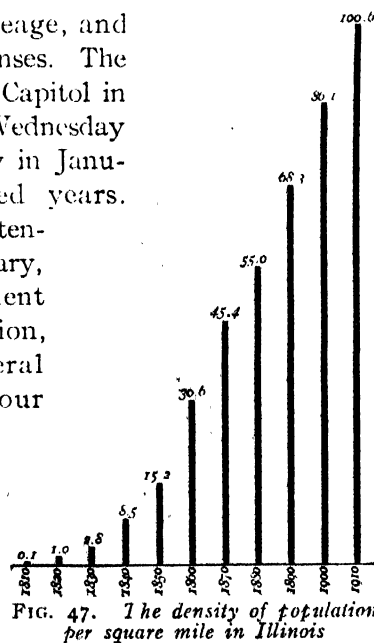


FIG. 47. The density of population per square mile in Illinois



FIG. 48. *The State Capitol at Springfield.*

For judicial administration the state is divided into seven districts, in each of which a Judge of the Supreme Court is elected, serving for a term of nine years. Other courts, inferior and appellate, have been established. The judges of the Circuit Court are elected for six years. Each county is entitled to two or more terms of this court each year.

In each county a county judge, clerk of court, and a county attorney are elected for terms of four years, as are also the coroner and the sheriff.

County business is done by a board of supervisors, one from each township, though a few counties have commissioners instead.

The state has twenty-seven Representatives in the National Congress.

In 1911 there were in the state 1,031,488 men of militia age, and the National Guard had an enrollment of 6,152 men.

Penal Institutions. There are two penitentiaries, one at Joliet and one at Chester; a

state reformatory at Pontiac, and a State Training School for Girls at Geneva.

State Charities. There is a Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Quincy, a Soldiers' Widows' Home at Wilmington, a Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Normal, an Industrial Home for the Blind and a charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary at Chicago, and an Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children at Lincoln. There is an Institution for the Education of Deaf and Dumb and an Institution for the Education of the Blind at Jacksonville.

Asylums for the insane are located at Kankakee, Elgin, Watertown, Jacksonville, and Anna; for incurable insane at Peoria, and for insane criminals at Chester.

Education. In all lines of education Illinois holds a very high rank. Provision is made by the state for the free education of all, and every grade of instruction is provided. The State University is at Urbana. It has a beautiful campus, comparing favorably with the finest in the world. There are eighteen buildings, representing a value of \$2,093,500. The library building is one of the finest in the country. The building and its decorations were designed by professors in



FIG. 49. ABRAHAM LINCOLN.
A monument in bronze, by Augustus Saint-Gaudens, in Lincoln Park, Chicago.



FIG. 50. *Across the campus at Northwestern University, Evanston.*

the State University. The University consists of six colleges and seven schools: literature and arts, engineering, science, agriculture, medicine, law, library science, music, pharmacy, dentistry, commerce, domestic science, and a graduate school.



FIG. 51. The Library Building, University of Illinois, at Urbana.

There are 615 members in the faculty, and in 1911 there were enrolled 4,896 students, about one-fourth of whom were women. This attendance puts the University among the seven great universities of the United States.

The Agricultural College is partly under the supervision of the general government and holds a very high rank in scientific research bearing on agricultural problems. The work that this school is now doing promises to double or treble the value of

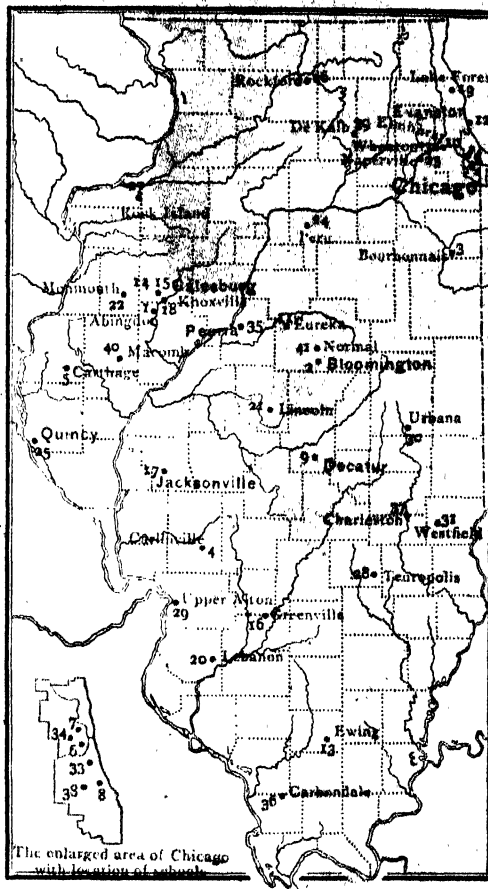


FIG. 52. The leading educational institutions of Illinois.

THE LEADING EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF ILLINOIS

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

- 1 Hedding College, M. E., Abingdon.
- 2 Illinois Wesleyan University, M. E., Bloomington.
- 3 St. Viateur's College, R. C., Bourbonnais.
- 4 Blackburn College, Presb., Carlinville.
- 5 Carthage College, Luth., Carthage.
- 6 St. Ignatius College, R. C., Chicago.
- 7 St. Stanislaus College, R. C., Chicago.
- 8 University of Chicago, Non-Sect., Chicago.
- 9 James Millikin University, Presb., Decatur.
- 10 Evangelical Proseminary, Ger. Evang., Elmhurst.
- 11 Eureka College, Christian, Eureka.
- 12 Northwestern University, M. E., Evanston.
- 13 Ewing College, Bapt., Ewing.
- 14 Knox College, Non-Sect., Galesburg.

- 15 Lombard College, Univ., Galesburg.
- 16 Greenville College, Free Meth., Greenville.
- 17 Illinois College, Non-Sect., Jacksonville.
- 18 St. Mary's School, Episc., Knoxville.
- 19 Lake Forest College, Presb., Lake Forest.
- 20 McKendree College, M. E., Lebanon.
- 21 Lincoln College, Cumb. Presb., Lincoln.
- 22 Monmouth College, United Presb., Monmouth.
- 23 Northwestern College, Ev. Ass'n, Naperville.
- 24 St. Bede College, R. C., Peru.
- 25 St. Francis Solanus College, R. C., Quincy.
- 26 Rockford College for Women, Non-Sect., Rockford.
- 27 Augustana College, Luth., Rock Island.
- 28 St. Joseph's College, R. C., Teutopolis.
- 29 Shurtleff College, Bapt., Upper Alton.
- 30 University of Illinois, State, Urbana.

- 31 Westfield College, U. B., Westfield.
- 32 Wheaton College, Cong., Wheaton.

SCHOOLS OF TECHNOLOGY

- 33 Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago.
- 34 Lewis Institute, Chicago.
- 35 Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria.

PUBLIC NORMAL SCHOOLS

- 36 Southern Illinois State Normal University, Carbondale.
- 37 Eastern Illinois State Normal School, Charleston.
- 38 Chicago Teachers College, Chicago.
- 39 Northern Illinois State Normal School, De Kalb.
- 40 Western Illinois State Normal School, Macomb.
- 41 Illinois State Normal University, Normal.

the corn crop within the present generation.

Recognizing the value of thorough education, Illinois has established five normal

schools for the instruction and training of teachers. The oldest is at Normal, and was one of the first schools of its kind in the

country. Others have been built at Carbondale, Charleston, De Kalb, and Macomb. These schools give instruction in every grade from the kindergarten up. They also admit high-school graduates and give them two years of professional training, part of which consists in the actual practice of teaching under skillful direction and criticism. The state contains 519 public high

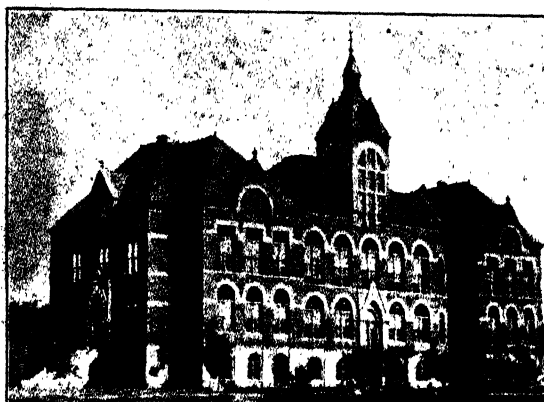


FIG. 53. *The Southern Illinois State Normal University at Carbondale.*

adopted, and the school year has been lengthened until the average now exceeds 160 days.

There were in the state in 1910, 1,543,621 persons between the ages of six and twenty-one, the so-called school age, and 65 per cent of these were in the public schools in charge of

29,384 teachers, the average attendance being 779,040. The daily attendance of children

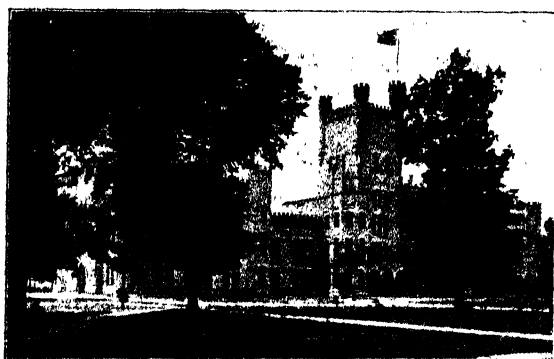


FIG. 54. *The Eastern Illinois State Normal School at Charleston.*



FIG. 56. *The Northern Illinois State Normal School at De Kalb.*

schools and 89 private secondary schools.

The free school system dates from 1855. There are now more than 13,100 public schools in the state, but more than 10,600 of these are ungraded country schools.

The school system of the state is organized under the State Superintendent and county superintendents, who inspect each school. A state course of study has been

enrolled in the schools increased from 61 per cent in 1880 to 77.9 per cent in 1910. In addition to the public school enrollment there were 167,929 children in private schools. Primary education is compulsory between the ages of six and fourteen.

The annual cost of the public schools and educational institutions to the state in recent years has been about \$26,000,000,



FIG. 55. *The Western Illinois State Normal School at Macomb.*

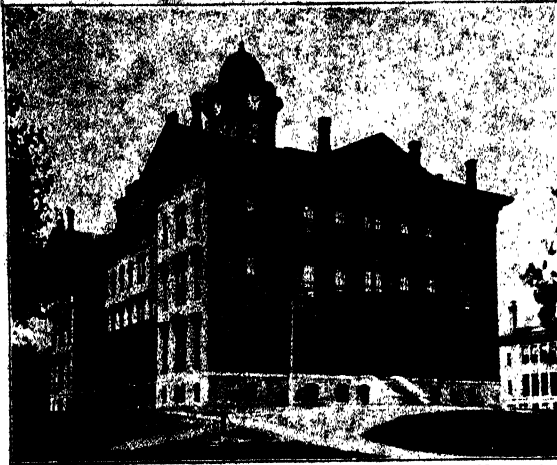


FIG. 57. Main building, the Illinois State Normal University at Normal.

partly canceled by the income from a permanent school fund that now amounts to more than \$19,000,000.

In addition to the state schools there are thirty-one schools classed as colleges and universities in Illinois, which are well distributed over the whole area of the state. Many of these institutions of higher learning were established by the early pioneers of the last century, and have been continual factors in uplifting education. Some of the largest of these universities have world-wide fame, as the Uni-

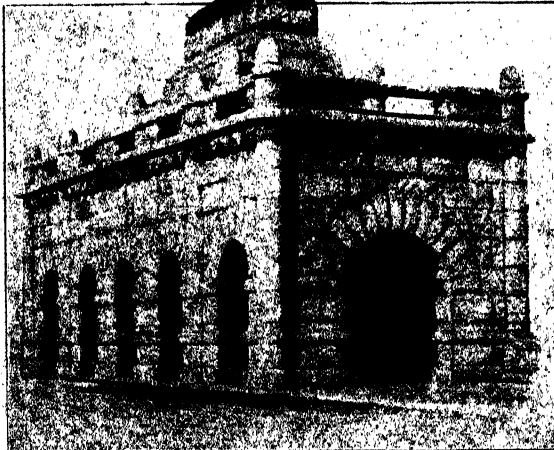


FIG. 58. General Grant Monument, by Louis T. Rebisso, in Lincoln Park.

versity of Chicago at Chicago and Northwestern University at Evanston. (Figs. 43 and 50.)

Technological schools known for special excellence are the Armour Institute of Technology and Lewis Institute, situated at Chicago, and the Bradley Polytechnic Institute at Peoria.

As a result of all this educational activity the state has an illiteracy record of only 3.7 per cent of the population of ten years of age or over. This places Illinois near the head of the list of states having little illiteracy, the average for the whole country being 7.7 per cent.



FIG. 59. Looking up the beautiful Lake Shore Drive, Chicago.

Table showing the rank of the leading manufacturing cities of Illinois.

Thirteenth census of the United States, Advance Reports.

RANK	CITY	VALUE OF ANNUAL MANUFACTURES	LARGEST INDUSTRY	PERCENT-AGE OF TOTAL MANUFACTURES OF CITY
1	Chicago	\$1,281,171,181	Slaughtering and meat packing	25.4
2	Peoria	63,061,155	Distilled liquors	70.7
3	Joliet	38,810,523	Iron and steel	50. +
4	Rockford	22,265,740	Furniture	
5	Moline	20,891,668	Agricultural implements	50. +
6	Waukegan	19,984,082	Glucose, iron and steel	75. +
7	East St. Louis	18,227,960	Flouring and grist mill products	
8	Quincy	11,435,572	Staves and furnaces	
9	Elgin	11,119,670	Clocks and watches	
10	Aurora	10,054,175	Steam-railroad repair shops	
11	Chicago Heights	10,839,266	Foundries and machine shops	
12	Alton	10,096,333	Flouring and grist mill products	

A GAZETTEER OF THE CITIES OF ILLINOIS

More than one-half of the people of Illinois reside in incorporated cities and towns of 4,000 population or over. In 1910 there were eighty-three such places in the state, all prosperous and growing. The large number and flourishing condition of these centers of activity are the natural results of: (1) the unusual fertility of the soil and the large percentage of the total area adapted to cultivation, two reasons for the enormous crops of corn, oats, hay, and fruits, which furnish great quantities of food products and support vast numbers of cattle, hogs, and horses (Dodge Figs. 250, 251, 253, 259, 260, 262, 263, 265, 267, 268, 269, 270, and 271); (2) the even surface which offers unusual advantages for building railways and common roads, giving the state, when built, highly efficient transportation service, and thus affording the people the best advantages for marketing their products; (3) the widespread and valuable deposits of coal, clay, sand, and building stone, which invite diversified manufacturing interests in nearly all the cities; and (4) the character of the people, who have come largely from the eastern states and northern Europe, and are the pick of energetic populations.

In the gazetteer which here follows the population of each city, town, and village is given in parentheses following the name of the place, all of the population figures being taken from the Thirteenth Census of the United States.

Alton (17,528), a handsome city in Madison County, on a limestone bluff 200 feet above the Mississippi River, eight miles above the mouth of the Missouri, and twenty-five miles north of St. Louis, Mo., is the market for several counties and has excellent advantages for industry and trade. Valuable limestone is quarried in the vicinity, and coal is conveniently near. The town has flour mills, glass factories, the largest glass-bottle factory in the country, brickyards, limekilns, machine shops, shoe factories, and powder mills, and manufactures farm machinery, wagons, and carriages. Large quantities of fruit are shipped. Four railways center here. In Upper Alton, a suburb, is Shurtleff College, a coeducational institution founded in 1836.

Aurora (29,807), situated in the southeastern part of Kane County, thirty-seven miles southwest of Chicago on the Fox River, is in the most productive agricultural district in the state. (Fig. 2.) Kendall, Kane, Dekalb, Will, and Dupage counties are largely tributary, commercially. It is connected with Chicago by three steam railroads and an electric railroad.

The city is on a belt line railway, reaching from Valparaiso, Ind., to Waukegan, Ill., and crossing every line entering Chicago, thus making it convenient to transship from one road to another without adding to the congestion of freight in

Chicago. This gives Aurora a great commercial advantage, and as a result varied and extensive manufactures have been established. The river furnishes a large water power used in the factories. The manufactures include a stove factory said to be the largest in the world, foundries, machine shops, flour, woolen, and cotton mills, factories for the manufacture of carriages, wagons, sash, doors, and blinds, road-making machinery, paint, pianos, corsets, watch and bicycle materials, and silverware. Here are repair shops of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railway. The city owns and operates its gas and electric plants and its water works.

Beardstown (6,107), Cass County, on the Illinois River, 112 miles north of St. Louis, Mo., and forty-six miles northwest of Springfield, Ill., has railroad repair shops, saw mills, a barrel, stave, and heading factory, shoe and button factories, flour mills, and breweries. It is in a fine agricultural region and the river affords valuable fishing.

Belleville (21,122), one of the leading cities of southern Illinois and the county seat of St. Clair County, is located fourteen miles southeast of St. Louis, with which it is connected by trolley. Coal from the extensive fields near by is delivered to the factories at less than a dollar a ton. This results in extensive manufacturing. It has more

than 100 factories manufacturing wrought iron, steel nails, tacks, stoves, and farm machinery. There are also extensive flour mills, breweries, distilleries, brickyards, and glass works.

Belvidere (7,253), the county seat of Boone County, on the Kishwaukee River, seventy-five miles northwest of Chicago, manufactures sewing machines, corsets, heaters, canned goods, and condensed milk. The dairy product is large.

Bloomington (25,768), the county seat of McLean County, 126 miles southwest of Chicago, is an important railway center. Coal is mined in the vicinity. Here are construction and repair shops of the Chicago & Alton Railway. Stoves, foundry products, trunks and valises, flour, furniture, sash, doors, and blinds are among the important manufactures. The city is in the heart of a rich agricultural region; in its vicinity is the largest nursery in the West. The breeding of fine cattle and horses is carried on in this region. Illinois Wesleyan University (M. E.) was established here in 1850. The Illinois State Normal University and the Soldiers' Orphans' Home are at Normal, two miles north. (Fig. 57.)

Blue Island (8,043), Cook County, south of Chicago, on the Calumet River, has three great railroads passing through it. There are quarries of limestone and large brickyards. Some brewing and some smelting of copper ore is done.

Cairo (14,548), the county seat of Alexander County, is in the southern extremity of the state, at the junction of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, 151 miles below St. Louis, 365 miles south of Chicago, and 547 miles from New Orleans. While it owed its early growth to the river traffic, which is still important, it has become a leading railroad center. The Ohio River is here crossed by a steel bridge built in 1888 at a cost of \$3,000,000. (Fig. 37.) The town is protected by a levee, built at great expense. It is an important market for lumber, grain, and fruit; has flour mills, a sewing-machine factory, foundries, machine shops, and extensive wood-working and bottling establishments.

Canton (10,453), Fulton County, thirty miles southwest of Peoria, has large coal mines in the vicinity. Wood is abundant. Its manufactures include agricultural implements, foundry products, tile, paving brick, cigars, and cigar boxes.

Carbondale (5,411), Jackson County, ninety-five miles southeast of St. Louis, Mo., is the center of an important coal-mining district. The Southern Illinois State Normal University is located here. (Fig. 53.)

Centralia (9,680), Marion County, sixty miles east of St. Louis, Mo., is directly over extensive coal mines supplying cheap fuel to local factories. It manufactures envelopes, mining tools, and fruit boxes, and much fruit raised in the vicinity, is shipped, especially large quantities of peaches, strawberries, and apples. Its railway facilities are excellent. The Illinois Central Railway has machine shops here.

Champaign (12,421), Champaign County, 128 miles southwest of Chicago, is situated in an extremely fertile farming region. It has manufactures of wagons, brick and tile, twine, and iron and steel goods.

Charleston (5,884), the county seat of Coles County, is in the midst of a rich farming region. It is the leading broom-corn market of the United States. Brooms, carriages, woolens, stoves, and tile are the chief manufactures. The Eastern Illinois State Normal School is here. (Fig. 54.)

Chicago (2,185,283), located near the head of Lake Michigan, was first visited by fur traders in 1654. In 1795 the Indians ceded a tract six miles square to the Government, and in 1803 Fort Dearborn was built. The first white settler, John Kinzie, a French Canadian, made his home here in 1804. In 1812 the fort was burned by the Indians, and all the inhabitants, about fifty, were massacred. In 1816 the fort was rebuilt, and a town sprang up which was incorporated as a city in 1837 with a population of about 4,000. Since then Chicago has had a phenomenal growth, and now, 1909, with over 2,000,000, ranks as the second largest city in the United States and the fourth in the world.

Chicago is a natural outgrowth of the advantages of its position and of the resources which focus here. In the early history of the West the Great Lakes were the best highway to and from the East, and Chicago was the port where water transportation reached farthest into the heart of the rich agricultural plains. These advantages are still powerful factors in giving Chicago its supremacy. But even more important to-day is

the fact that Lake Michigan lies directly across the east and west lines of travel, forcing all east and west land traffic in the northern part of the United States to concentrate at the head of the lake. As that part of the country is most densely populated and since most of our traffic is along east and west lines, nearly one-half the area of the United States is tributary to Chicago.

When railways came, the level plains of the Middle West offered the easiest possible conditions for building; few grades and curves were necessary, and no expensive construction was required. Consequently the fertile prairies were rapidly covered with a network of steel roadways leading to Chicago, which has become the largest railway center in the world. The two factors, rapid transportation by land and cheap transportation by water, have given Chicago enormous advantages as a distributing center.

These advantages, position and transportation, have brought the coal fields of the state to the manufactories in the city, and the cheap water transportation of the Great Lakes has brought the fields of Pennsylvania and Ohio almost as near. The timber and iron of the North have met the coal of the South and the East at the factory doors of Chicago, and a great variety and a vast quantity of manufactured products have resulted. The unusually fertile agricultural regions lying immediately tributary to Chicago have millions of farm animals, which find a ready market each year at this great industrial center.

The city lies on an almost perfectly level plain which was formerly the bed of the larger Lake Michigan. The streets are laid out in regular squares, running with the compass. There are about 2,900 miles of streets, about 1,500 miles of which are paved. The city water supply is taken from the Lake, through intakes located from two to four miles from shore. The water flows by gravity through tunnels to the pumping stations located at various points in the city. Great engines at these stations pump 480,000,000 gallons of water into the city mains every day. Formerly the sewage of the city was discharged into the Lake, but as this endangered the city's water supply, a great drainage canal was planned which was completed in 1900. It has cost

\$50,000,000. This canal reverses the flow of the Chicago River, and takes 300,000 cubic feet of water per minute from Lake Michigan, thus carrying the sewage of Chicago into the Des Plaines River, and so down the Illinois into the Mississippi. This, the largest sanitary engineering feat ever attempted, was completely successful. The canal is available for navigation to Lockport, a distance of twenty-eight miles.

There is a wide variety of manufactures in the city, but slaughtering and packing are far in the lead with products valued at over \$250,000,000 a year, which is about one-fourth the value of the city's manufactures. (Fig. 26.) Next in importance come foundry and machine-shop products and iron and steel. (Fig. 38.) The steel industries are largely centered at South Chicago. In ready-made clothing the city ranks next to New York; although its output is now over a million dollars a week, the industry is increasing rapidly. Chicago leads the world in the manufacture of farm machinery, particularly harvesting machines, and more than one-half of the world's binder twine is made here. It ranks first in America in slaughtering and meat-packing, in foundry and machine-shop products, and cars; second in men's clothing, malt liquors, newspaper and book printing; lumber products, including sash, doors and blinds, and furniture.

Chicago has an area of about 190 square miles and a water front on Lake Michigan of about twenty-five miles. The Chicago River, since the completion of the drainage canal an outlet of the Lake, has a frontage of sixty miles in the city, over two-thirds of which is available for wharfage. (Figs. 23 and 34.) The river is crossed by many bridges, the most interesting being the rolling lift or bascule, which open like a jackknife to leave the channel clear (Fig. 35). The harbor, formed by an artificial breakwater, has an area of about 450 acres and a depth of sixteen feet. Steam, elevated and surface railroads afford excellent local communication everywhere.

Chicago is second only to New York in the large number, the size, and the extreme height of office buildings, the so-called sky scrapers, which originated here. The frame work of the buildings is planted upon steel encased in concrete. The tallest of these is the Masonic

Temple, twenty-one stories in height; the largest is the Auditorium, which contains a great hotel and one of the largest theaters in the world.

The city is justly famous for its parks, which have an area of more than 3,000 acres and are connected by boulevards. The parks and boulevards form a nearly complete chain around the heart of the city, providing about sixty-six miles of driveway. (Fig. 59.) Some of the finest sculpture in the world adorns these parks, notably the statues of Lincoln by St. Gaudens and the Grant monument by Rebisso. (Figs. 49 and 58.)

Chicago Heights (14,525), Cook County, is a manufacturing suburb of Chicago, twenty-five miles south of the city, on a slightly rolling glacial moraine. The city is on a belt railway, which crosses all railroads entering Chicago, and gives it excellent advantages in handling freight. The manufactures include iron and steel goods, railway cars, locomotives, machinery, wagons, building materials, pianos and organs, chemicals, school supplies, and glassware.

Cicero (14,557), joining Chicago on the west, has among other industrial plants the main plant of the Western Electric Company. Many of the employees make their home in Cicero.

Clinton (5,165), the county seat of Dewitt County, is twenty-two miles south of Bloomington, on the Illinois Central Railroad. It has railway repair shops and varied industries.

Collinsville (7,478), Madison County, is twelve miles northeast of St. Louis, Mo., with which it is connected by trolley. There are coal mines, brick kilns, zinc smelters, and lead works near by.

Danville (27,871), the county seat of Vermilion County, is on the Vermilion River, 124 miles south of Chicago. Coal is mined near by, the Kellyville field putting out more than a million and a half tons a year. The river furnishes water power. Here are railroad shops and manufactures of iron, wagons, brick, woolens, flour, hominy, and beer. It lies in the richest part of the corn belt, three adjacent counties producing more than 50,000,000 bushels of corn per year. (Fig. 20.) Here is a National Soldiers' Home.

Decatur (31,140), the county seat of Macon County, on the north bank of the Sangamon River, thirty-nine miles east of Springfield, is an important railway center. It is in the midst

of a rich farming area. There are two coal mines in the city. It manufactures engines, farm implements, iron bridges, tile, brick, artificial stone, coffins, carriages, furniture, plumbing goods, gas and electric fixtures, mantles, soda fountains, clothing, bagging, beer, flour, and corn products. It is the site of James Milliken University.

De Kalb (5,904), De Kalb County, fifty-eight miles west of Chicago, is in a rich farming and dairying region (Figs. 28 and 29) with good transportation facilities. Its wire-fence industry is one of the largest in America. Other manufactures include farm implements, nails, shoes, gloves, pianos, flour, cheese, and butter. It is the seat of the Northern Illinois State Normal School. (Fig. 56.)

Dixon (7,216), the county seat of Lee County, is on the Rock River, ninety-eight miles west of Chicago, in a region famous for dairy products. Its condensed milk factory is the largest in the world. The river yields 5,000 horse power, the dam giving slack water for twelve miles back. The manufactures include foundry and wire products, plows, wooden ware, wagons, boots and shoes, boxes, and condensed milk. A private normal and training school located here is well and favorably known.

Duquoin (5,454), Perry County, seventy-one miles southeast of St. Louis, Mo., has twelve companies that mine coal near by, and an extensive salt-making plant. It also has iron and pump works, veneer factories, and an ice plant.

East St. Louis (58,547), St. Clair County, on the Mississippi River opposite St. Louis, Mo., is the focus of twelve railways which cross the river here on great steel bridges. (Fig. 39.) The manufactures include malleable iron, rolling mill and foundry products, bolts and nuts, nails, cars, glass, chemicals, white lead, castor oil, syrup, paint, barrels, flour and beer. Here is one of the largest stock yards in America, with extensive slaughtering and meat-packing interests.

Edwardsville (5,014), the county seat of Madison County, twenty miles northeast of St. Louis, Mo., is largely engaged in coal mining. The manufactures include brick, carriages, plumbers' goods, plows, and flour.

Elgin (25,976), Kane County, on Fox River thirty-five miles northwest of Chicago, is in

the richest dairying region in America. It is the leading butter-producing city of the United States, and has large condensed-milk factories. Extensive water power is furnished by the river. The city is world-renowned for its watches. Other manufactures are foundry and machine-shop products, windmills, silver plate, soap, boots and shoes, butter tubs, liquors, pipe organs, flour, books, and periodicals. (Fig. 36.) The Northern Hospital for the Insane is here.

Evanston (24,978), Cook County, on Lake Michigan, joins Chicago on the north and is one of the most attractive residence centers adjacent to that city. It is widely known for its excellent schools and especially as the seat of Northwestern University, founded in 1854, the most famous Methodist Episcopal College in the country. (Fig. 50.) The sale of liquors is prohibited within four miles of the University. It is one of the most orderly cities in the United States.

Freeport (17,567), the county seat of Stephenson County, is located on the Pecatonica River, 125 miles northwest of Chicago. It manufactures wagons, hardware, windmills, pumps, boots, shoes, musical instruments, and canned goods.

Galena (4,835), the county seat of Jo Daviess County, seventeen miles southeast of Dubuque, Iowa, has a picturesque location on the Galena River, six miles from the Mississippi. The town is built upon the bluff which drops down in terraces to the Galena River. The Mississippi River steamboats ascend the Galena to this point. The place was settled early, and its history is closely connected with the production of lead, its name, in fact, being that of the ore mined in the limestone bluffs in the vicinity. There are manufactures of lead and zinc, wooden ware, furniture, and boots and shoes.

Galesburg (22,089), the county seat of Knox County, is in the midst of fertile prairies. The abundant coal in the vicinity invites manufacturing. The leading products are paving brick, brooms, typewriters, corn planters, and other machinery. Its railway facilities are excellent. Here are repair shops of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railway. The town is an educational center, having two old established colleges, Lombard College (Univ.), founded in 1852, and Knox College (non-sect.), founded in 1837.

Granite City (9,903), Madison County, is a thriving industrial city south of Alton, on the Mississippi. Its plants include planing, rolling, steel, and tin-plate mills, lead works, stamping and enameling works, and fire-brick kilns.

Harvey (7,227), Cook County, twenty miles south of Chicago, is an important manufacturing suburb. It is a new town of rapid growth, well planned, with a residence district separate from the factories. There are extensive manufactures of railroad supplies, machinery, stoves, engines, foundry products, and artificial stone.

Jacksonville (15,326), the county seat of Morgan County, is located on a fertile prairie, ninety miles north of St. Louis, Mo. It has excellent railway facilities and manufactures boilers, tile, brick, and woolens. The city is best known as an educational center. It is the seat of Illinois College, Illinois Woman's College, a Conservatory of Music, state schools for the deaf, dumb, and blind, and the Illinois State Central Hospital for the Insane. The city is well built and the streets are shaded by fine elm and maple trees.

Joliet (34,670), the county seat of Will County, is on the Des Plaines River, thirty-seven miles southwest of Chicago. The river furnishes a large water power. Limestone in the vicinity, valuable as building material, is quarried extensively. The railway facilities are of the best. Here is one of the largest steel plants in the country and extensive rolling mills. The manufactures include iron and steel products, wooden ware, marble and stone products, brick, tile, farming implements, wire products, boots and shoes, flour, breakfast foods, beer, and paints. The State Penitentiary, a magnificent structure of local stone, costing nearly a million dollars, is located here. The city has a number of parks and playgrounds. Electric cars run to Chicago.

Kankakee (13,986), the county seat of Kankakee County, on the Kankakee River, is fifty-six miles south of Chicago. It lies in a wide plain or lowland, formerly the bed of one of the great glacial lakes. The soil of this fertile lowland is now largely drained and reclaimed for agriculture. The railway facilities are excellent. Nearby is an almost inexhaustible supply of limestone suitable for building. The river is navigable

small boats. The manufactures include carriages, plows, nails, furniture, musical instruments, sewing machines, brick, tile, and flour. Here is the Eastern Illinois Hospital for the Insane. The buildings cost \$2,000,000 and house over 2,000 patients.

Kewanee (9,307), in Henry County, 132 miles southwest of Chicago, is in a productive farming region. The manufactures include tubing, boilers, steam heaters, farming machinery, gloves, mittens, and brick and tile.

La Salle (11,537), La Salle County, ninety-nine miles southwest of Chicago, is beautifully situated on the north bank of the Illinois River, along a series of terraces rising from the stream to the plain 250 feet above. Steamboats ascend the river to this point. The bluffs furnish fine building stone and sandstone for the manufacture of glass. Coal mines underlie the city. This affords exceptional advantages for the manufacture of Portland cement, pressed brick, sheet zinc, spelter, sulphuric acid, and clocks.

Lincoln (10,892), the county seat of Logan County, twenty-nine miles northeast of Springfield, is in a rich farming region underlaid with coal. The manufactures are rolling-mill products, caskets, horse collars, and mattresses. Lincoln College (Cumb. Presb.), the State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children, and the Odd Fellows' Orphans' Home are located here.

Litchfield (5,971), Montgomery County, fifty miles northeast of St. Louis, Mo., is in a fertile, undulating prairie where coal and oil are found. Machinery, cars, engines, radiators, flour, and glassware are manufactured.

Macomb (5,774), the county seat of McDonough County, manufactures pottery, brick, tiles, drain pipe, and castings. The Western Illinois State Normal School is here. (Fig. 55.)

Mattoon (11,456), Coles County, at the intersection of three railway lines, has extensive railway repair shops, and manufactures engines, pumps, brooms, brick and tile. It is in the richest broom-corn area in the country and ships large quantities of the brush.

Maywood (8,033), Cook County, on the Des Plaines River, ten miles west of Chicago, has extensive tin-can factories.

Metropolis (4,655), the county seat of Massac

County, forty miles above Cairo, on the Ohio River, manufactures brick, pottery, lumber products, plow handles, staves, headings, boats, wagon materials, and flour. It has well-paved streets above the highest floods.

Moline (24,199), Rock Island County, is situated on the south bank of the Mississippi River, and joins the city of Rock Island on the west. A narrow channel separating Moline from the island of Rock Island, furnishes fine water power, used jointly by Moline and the United States Government. The Government has a great arsenal and a small-arms factory on the Island. Four railways converge here, and the Mississippi River is bridged at this point. An almost inexhaustible supply of coal is found in the adjacent hills. With matchless transportation facilities by river and by rail, and abundant fuel close at hand, extensive manufacturing naturally results. Agricultural implements, including plows and corn planters, with wagons, pumps, and gasoline engines, are the leading manufactures; others are rolling-mill, machine-shop, and foundry products brick and tile, organs, pianos, scales, furniture, paper, and dressed lumber. The town is public spirited and progressive, and its natural advantages fully justify a belief in its future greatness.

Monmouth (9,128), the county seat of Warren County, lies in a prairie region of great fertility. Coal is mined near by. The manufactures include pottery, sewer pipe, brick, machinery, hardware, plows, and cultivators. Monmouth College (United Presb.) is located here.

Morris (4,563), the county seat of Grundy County, is situated on the Illinois River sixty-two miles southwest of Chicago. The manufactures include brick and tile, hardware, strawboard, leather, and rolled oats. On Mazon Creek, near by, are the famous beds of carboniferous fossil ferns and insects.

Mount Carmel (6,934), the county seat of Wabash County, on the Wabash River, at the mouth of the White, has abundant water power. Here are repair shops of the Big Four Route. The manufactures include dressed lumber, furniture, wooden ware, strawboard, and flour.

Mount Vernon (8,007), the county seat of Jefferson County, manufactures railway cars, brick and tile, flour, and railway ties which are

preserved by a chemical process. Fruits are grown, and coal is mined in the vicinity

Murphysboro (7,485), county seat of Jackson County, is on the Big Muddy River, fifty-seven miles north of Cairo. Coal is mined near by. It has railway machine shops, brickyards, a cooperage plant, a brewery, and flour mills. Much fruit is raised, canned, and shipped in this region.

Oak Park (19,444), Cook County, joins Chicago on the west and is closely connected by railroads with the business center of that city. It is a very attractive residence village and is one of the oldest settlements around Chicago. Previous to the adoption of its present name, it was known successively as Kettlestring's Grove, Oak Ridge, Harlem, and Noyesville.

Olney (5,011), the county seat of Richland County, manufactures brick, tile, and flour. Much fruit is raised near by. Here is a cold-storage plant; canning is an important industry.

Ottawa (9,535), the county seat of La Salle County, at the junction of the Fox and the Illinois rivers, eighty-four miles southwest of Chicago, has excellent water power. Coal is mined near by and sandstone is quarried and used largely in glass factories. Good clay and shale invite the manufacture of pottery, terra cotta, drain tile, and brick. Among other manufactures are agricultural implements, wagons, carriages, and musical instruments.

Pana (6,055), Christian County, forty-two miles southeast of Springfield, is in a rich stock-raising region, and is a leading coal-mining center.

Paris (7,664), the county seat of Edgar County, is an agricultural center. It has manufactures of brooms, street cars, and glass, and ships large quantities of broom-corn brush.

Pekin (9,897), the county seat of Tazewell County, is located on the Illinois River, ten miles south of Peoria. It is the focus of seven railways. Coal is extensively mined, some mines being within the city limits. The city has two large distilleries, and manufactures wagons, plows, reapers, barrels, glucose, starch, and chemicals.

Peoria (66,950), the county seat of Peoria County, on the west bank of the Illinois River, 160 miles southwest of Chicago, has, next to Chicago, the best railway service in the state, and also has steamboat lines to St. Louis. The

tributary country is underlaid with coal and is the richest corn-producing area in the world. While Peoria is a great live-stock and grain market, it is best known for its manufacture of secondary products of corn. Its elevators hold millions of bushels. Its distilleries are the largest in the world; the internal revenue collected from them amounts to more than \$25,000,000 a year. Large factories make starch, glucose, breakfast foods, and a score of other products from corn. The manufacture of spirits invites the manufacture of drugs and chemicals. Coal and shale lead to the production of pottery, brick, and tile. Agricultural implements, foundry and machine-shop products, strawboard, paper, cordage, and flour are produced. Bradley Polytechnic Institute takes its name from a public-spirited citizen who gave a large part of her fortune to endow this school for the technical training of youth. Here is the State Asylum for the Incurable Insane.

Peru (7,984), La Salle County, 100 miles southwest of Chicago, is on the north bank of the Illinois River, at the head of navigation. Coal is mined largely in the vicinity. It is the seat of a number of flourishing industries. The manufactures include zinc, plows, wheels, agricultural implements, gasoline engines, clocks, beer, pumps, boilers, scales, and fertilizers. Here is St. Bede College (R. C.).

Pontiac (6,090), the county seat of Livingston County, is on the Vermilion River, ninety-three miles southwest of Chicago. It manufactures shoes, lounges, candy, and boxes. The Illinois State Reformatory for Juvenile Offenders is here.

Princeton (4,131), the county seat of Bureau County, 105 miles southwest of Chicago, is in a rich farming and coal-mining region. Carriages, brick, and tile are manufactured, but the mercantile interests are chiefly connected with butter, cheese, fruit, and flour. Near by are extensive nurseries. The farmers are engaged largely in the breeding of fine stock.

Quincy (36,587), the county seat of Adams County, on the Mississippi, has fine transportation both by railway and river. The region around about is rich in coal and building stone and produces much fruit. The manufactures include stoves, farm machinery, machinery, and products.

carriages and wagons, pumps, wire work, furniture, egg cases, boxes, trunks, refrigerators, sash, doors, and blind, show cases, furniture, organs, soap, beer, harness, paper, strawboard, and tobacco. A State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home is located here. It is the seat of St. Francis Solanus College (R. C.).

Rockford (45,401), the county seat of Winnebago County, eighty-seven miles west of Chicago, on Rock River, is in the midst of a rich farming region and has excellent transportation facilities. The manufactures include machinery, farming implements, gas stoves, furniture, wooden ware, watches, flour, hosiery, gloves, mittens, paper, and beer. Here is Rockford College, a school for women.

Rock Island (24,335), the county seat of Rock Island County, is situated on the Mississippi River, opposite Davenport, Iowa. The river is spanned here by a double-decked steel bridge for both railways and carriages, erected by the Federal Government at a cost of \$1,300,000. The island of Rock Island, separated from the city by a narrow channel of the river, is occupied by the Government Armory and Arsenal, the largest in the country. It occupies ten massive stone buildings and cost more than \$10,000,000. Coal is mined near by, and there is unlimited limestone for building purposes. The manufactures include brick, stoves, carriages, farm machinery, sash, doors, and blinds, lumber, soap, and beer. It is the site of Augustana College (Luth.).

Springfield (51,678), the capital of Illinois and the county seat of Sangamon County, is situated 185 miles southwest of Chicago. It was settled in 1819 and became the capital in 1837. It is laid out regularly, with the public square and courthouse in the center. The State Capitol is one of the finest buildings in the West and cost more than \$5,000,000. (Fig. 48.) The city is surrounded by fertile prairies underlaid with coal, the annual output of the mines reaching nearly two and one-half million tons. Rolling-mill products, agricultural implements, engines, boiler, furnace products, flour, shoes, and paving blocks are among the manufactures. The city is the greatest live-stock center in America. The headquarters of ten national live-stock associations. The State Fair is permanently

located here. Springfield was the home of Abraham Lincoln and contains a beautiful monument to his memory. It was erected at a cost of more than \$200,000 by popular subscriptions from the citizens of various states.

Spring Valley (7,035), Bureau County, is a railway center and one of the leading coal-mining towns of the West.

Sterling (7,467), Whiteside County, is finely located on the north bank of the Rock River. The river furnishes abundant water power for manufactures of agricultural implements, engines, pumps, hearses, coffins, and paper.

Streator (14,253), La Salle County, on the Vermilion River, ninety-six miles southwest of Chicago, is in the center of the Vermilion coal fields. A fine grade of steam coal is mined extensively. Foundry and machine-shop products, glass, brick, and tile are manufactured. There is a park of thirteen acres in the center of the town.

Taylorville (5,446), the county seat of Christian County, is on the south fork of the Sangamon, twenty-six miles southeast of Springfield, in the same rich prairie region. The live-stock industry is important in the vicinity. It has an almost inexhaustible coal supply owned and mined by home capital. The chief manufactures are paper, books, periodicals, brick, and tile.

Urbana (8,245), the county seat of Champaign County, 128 miles south of Chicago, joins the city of Champaign on the east. It is best known as the seat of the University of Illinois, opened in 1868, and now one of the most promising educational centers in the country; women were admitted in 1871. The campus covers 623 acres and is widely known for its beauty. (Fig. 51.)

Waukegan (16,069), the county seat of Lake County, is on the shore of Lake Michigan, thirty-five miles north of Chicago, the principal part of the town lying on a bluff above the lake. It is the terminus of a belt railway, which runs around Chicago to Valparaiso, Ind., crossing all railroads that enter Chicago, and thus giving Waukegan Chicago freight rates on all sides. This results in extensive manufactures, chief among which are steel wire, brass, scales, starch, sugar, glucose, leather goods, leather, oil, boats, sash, doors, and butter. It has valuable mineral springs.

